Drivers of Flow and Commitment among Service Workers

An Empirical Exploration of Goffman's Institutions in the UK Branded Restaurant Industry

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This thesis is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Business Management from the School of Management and Languages in Heriot-Watt University.

Abstract

This thesis explores the theory of Goffman's institutions and applies his concept to the UK Branded Restaurant Industry. Restaurants in the UK are a large part of the tourism hospitality industry, representing around 50% of the business activity in these fields, of which we see dominance from a number of branded operators. Goffman's institutions, flow, commitment, motivation, spirituality, and deviant behaviour are combined to create a theoretical underpinning for an empirical analysis of staff working in the field. The research focuses on the drivers of flow and commitment of staff. The study successfully applies Goffman's theory of institutions to the UK Branded Restaurant Industry, by finding similarity in the concepts which are central to those of a traditional asylum, as discussed in Goffman's early works, and contributing additional aspects to his original theories.

The study is the first large scale empirical analysis to examine the nature of flow, commitment, motivation, spirituality, and deviant behaviour, in the context of UK Branded Restaurants. Within the study, the findings show that there is gender parity in this section of the tourism and hospitality industry, which deviates from previous literature. It also identifies key groups of employees who demonstrate higher levels of commitment through intrinsic values and belief systems. The findings are particularly important to managers as they point what is important when identifying new staff members.

Acknowledgements and Declaration of Originality

My wish is not to turn this section into an Oscar's style list of people that I wish to thank. There are many who will not be named, but this is not intended to cause offence; it is merely through practicality that I do not name all of my individual PhD colleagues at Heriot-Watt, who understand only too well what we go through to produce this oversized "coursework". I must also say that the sheer creativity and fun of the undergraduate students that I have taught during my time at Heriot-Watt have only fuelled my passion to become a researcher and educator. I also thank the participants and organisations who made the data collection, therefore the overall study, ultimately possible.

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Without the support of my family, partner, and extended family ("the in-laws") I do not think that this entire process would have been possible. There are, of course, members of my family that will never see what I have achieved, however I know that they would be extremely proud were they here to see me complete this.

To the people who have been there from conception to completion of this thesis: Professor Kevin O'Gorman and Dr Babak Taheri. You have been through every high and low of emotion that I have experienced, and there is no possible statement that I can offer to express how grateful I am that you were. I value you both for your academic support and guidance and for the great knowledge and best support systems that a PhD student could ever hope to have. Your encouragement and belief in my ability to complete this thesis are what have kept me going, and are unmeasurable. Your friendships will be with me forever, at any point I should question the decision I made to change not only what I do, but how I deliver myself, I will recall many chats that we have had. Two words, "thank you", are such small tokens, but the lasting memory of the period spent completing this thesis alongside you will hold the true meaning of what I mean by their use.

This dissertation is entirely my own work and I have made due reference to the work of others throughout.

Signed _____

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1. Introduction

This thesis presents a study of flow and commitment among service workers where an implicit "mortification process" is employed by branded restaurants that results in a paradoxical relationship between workers' experience and flow with the work they perform. Organisations script interactions, strip staff of possessions, give them uniforms and also separate the staff from the outside world for long periods of time, the analysis presents a paradox of customer service whereby the longer serving staff are 'institutionalised' to the extent that they become detached from the idea of service and become slaves of the institution. I.e. their customer service identity and awareness are diminished despite their apparent commitment and 'flow' within the job increasing.

The principal aim of this thesis is to use the works of Erving Goffman, and his five main theories (Social Interaction, Mortification, Dramaturgy, Power, and the Presentation of Self: see Table 2.1), to analyse staff motivation, flow, and commitment. The context of the study is the UK Branded Restaurant Industry due to its size, growth, and economic power within the hospitality industry. The hospitality industry and restaurants will be discussed further in Chapter 2, and demonstrates the extent to which it financially supports the global, and ultimately UK economies. The thesis also indulges in the theory of deviance, and deviant behaviour. Goffman (2005; 1966; 1961) recognised to a great extent that people in situations can show themselves in different lights (Presentation of Self) depending on what motivates them to demonstrate certain characteristics, in specific social encounters. This is important to the study, as flow and commitment have a relationship with motivation; at the most basic level the reason why people go to work and engage.

Goffman's process of mortification is replicated inadvertently by the branded restaurant industry through a collection of contextual protocols and characteristics. This collection leads to the effective stripping of outside references for the workers and the study presents evidence of aspects of this mortification process leading to greater achievement of flow and commitment among staff, particularly in groups who have spent a greater amount of time in employment in the business. There is a compounding influence of time evident in the analysis of this study whereby, the accepted context being considered is one where workers typically spend long working hours without a break of 'reality' as they find themselves contained within the restaurant for the entirety of long shifts. Further, those who have been employed for longer lengths of service (over four

years) will have been working under the same 'rules', within an identical controlled environment for an extended period of time and as a result they present the same institutionalised behaviour of inmates of a total institution. Of note is the fact that these individuals will have spent proportionately more time within the contained context of their branded restaurant than any other context for the whole length of their term of employment, a considerable contributory factor to the sense of perceived 'flow'.

1.1 Pre-theoretic Overview

1.1.1 *People*

Staff retention is an issue at all levels, in the different types of business operating within the hospitality industry today (Walsh and Taylor, 2007). Different sizes, types, and styles of organisation utilize different techniques to motivate staff, the ultimate aims being to drive performance and retain staff, thereby reducing recruitment and training costs to the business, and lessening the impact to the profit and loss account by protecting labour budgets.

The researcher has over five years of experience working in a number of operating units for the same branded restaurant operator. Staff retention across the board has proven to be extremely successful, with members of staff serving anywhere up to eighteen years with the organisation, many in the same role of waiter or waitress. Indeed, those promoted through an intensive management training course have been known to return to waiting tables, often leaving a salary of between £19,000 and £21,000 per annum.

Staff retention issues cost the UK hospitality industry an estimated £3 million per annum. With a personnel turnover of around twenty percent, well over 350,000 people leave their hospitality job every year (Dermody, 2002; DiPietro et al., 2007). In many cases, valuable human resources, and their intrinsic skills such as knowledge, personalities, and other inimitable qualities, leave businesses unable to recreate identical service provision. Hospitality customers in businesses such as hotels and restaurants choose to repeat their trade due to the level of service or type of staff-customer engagement, which requires continuity in staff members. Whilst it is possible to train and develop towards standards of procedure and service, it is not possible to recreate a personality, or recreate how personable one person was, in a replacement member of staff (Hur and Adler, 2011; Lin and Huang, 2012).

At the same time as increasing advertising, recruiting, and training costs, poor retention leads operators to lose the momentum with which they can develop and grow organic knowledge and skill in individuals. Regarding competitive advantage, knowledge has become one of the key factors in achieving distinction over market competition (Schmitt et al., 2012). It has become critical to organisations and whilst many processes and procedures may be recorded and saved to file, a number of other aspects of operational activity (shortcuts, how to fiddle the thing to make the other thing work properly, where certain items have been moved to, or the ability to identify specific opportunities) can be intrinsically embedded in the memories or abilities of individuals. The loss of human capital extends to the specific business or operational knowledge, critical skills, and capabilities that individual staff members gain through unique experiences and circumstances (Akrivos et al., 2007; Arnal et al., 2003). Lack of retention also leads to an increased investment in financial capital associated with recruitment and training process for new staff, but also encroaches upon time needed to invest in developing businesses for the future. Weaknesses resulting from loss of staff may damage reputations and leave businesses open to attack from competitors, with the risk of being outperformed as other operators strengthen their teams and activities. (Boswell et al., 2005).

As a predominantly service-based industry, hospitality depends upon on a supply of personable, well-trained staff. With skills gaps deepening due to poor retention, employers are hindered by the inability to further train their former staff, and develop resources. This can often result in former staff being replaced by new recruits of varying quality, or even specific roles left vacant due to skills shortages (Lages, 2012; Schmitt et al., 2012). Depending on the level of skill required, vacancy advertisements can attract, on average, anywhere from five to five hundred (or more) applications rendering recruitment a time-consuming and laborious task. By recruiting and promoting development within existing numbers, organisations should be able to focus on developing more than just a continual string of new people.

This leads to a basic research question: why do staff members leave industry jobs? Considerable time, money, and effort go into attracting people to roles in hospitality operators, and similar investment and activities should engage staff to stay with employers. One issue facing most organisations in the United Kingdom is the vast pool of potential staff which develops every year in university and college areas. These are

short-term employees who generally do not wish to develop their careers in the hospitality industry, but are available for around four years in order to fund lifestyle choices and sustenance during studies. This lack of commitment creates a transient group (Alonso and O'Neill, 2009). Whilst it is possible that this type of employee will commit throughout their period of study, and may even seek to continue into a career programme with their employer, many are detached from the organisation from the start, and willing to move on to other employers as and when they wish or need to (Chen and Shen, 2012).

1.1.2 Contextual Setting

The restaurant sector equates to just below 50% (KeyNote, 2011) of the overall tourism and hospitality industry in the UK, and the start-up/closure rate is becoming more favourable since the start of the 2008 recession. Continued growth in branded restaurant operations sees the development of new business opportunities and the creation of many jobs, sometimes in areas which have not historically attracted such investment. Many branded operators identify the need for individuality to attract business, yet what is apparent within the operators' premises is that the offering is standardised. A JD Wetherspoon bar or eatery may operate inside a quaint, historic building, or a highly modernised, newly built unit, yet the menu and beverages offered in both premises will be the same, with perhaps a notional effort to offer a local product where possible (Everitt and Bowler, 1996).

With standardised operations, come standards of service. Operators will define how they wish customers to be treated, and how they should be served. The prescribed formulaic approach to customer service, while different from business to business, will be embedded within structured training programmes delivered to all staff, in order to promote the values of the business, and to create an "identical" offering in each of their units, which customers come to know, expect, and hopefully enjoy enough to repeat the experience (Ritzer, 2010; Taylor and Lyon, 1995). Behaviour is monitored, and certain aspects of the personality are expected to shine through. Those who enact their roles based on the structured training are (ideally) rewarded, but what is to become of those who do not follow the plan and deviate from expectation?

The difference here is made by the person offering the service. Even brands, looking to attract customers to their standard menus, standard service, typical interior and music,

need staff to be individual and engage with the customers. It is paramount therefore that they engage their staff by motivating them, meeting their expectations, and praising the behaviour that meets the objectives of the business (Çınar et al., 2011; Crawford and Hubbard, 2008). However, in the instances of poor behaviour, or performances that are lower than expected, it is perhaps more prudent to tackle the problematic aspects of an individual performance, rather than simply dismiss the employee (Parsa, et al., 2009). Even the best employee can become demotivated; a good employer can identify that and attempt to rectify the situation, before losing more than just a payroll number (Schmitt et al., 2012).

1.2 Why is this Interesting?

The hospitality industry is one of the UK's highest earning sectors, contributing £34bn in gross tax revenues from a turnover of circa £90bn. This study focusses on the 'Branded Restaurant Sector'. From 2007 through 2011, the UK restaurant market experienced a growth in food and drink sales of over £1bn despite the recession (Restaurant Magazine, July 2012). Whilst consumers are aware of what is available, and at what cost, eating out has become engrained in our culture, which assists the growth of available outlets, dominated by branded and chain operators, summarised in Table 1.1 (adapted from Keynote, 2012).

Table 1.1: UK Branded Restaurant Operators

Company	**No. Employees**	**Sales (£million) (2011 trading year – 12 months)**
Bay Restaurant Group	2,224	89,941
Gondola Group	14,951	569,500
Green King	20,218	1,042,700
JD Wetherspoon	24,067	1,072,014
Kentucky Fried Chicken (KFC)	6,753	371,215
Mitchells & Butlers	40,728	1,796,000
Nando's	7,351	317,356
Pizza Hut	16,247	346,174
The Restaurant Group	10,572	487,114
Whitbread	30,484	1,778,000

Consumers continue to dine out, seeking better value and offers (Keynote, 2012), which are widely available both directly from operators, and via third parties such as 5pm and Wowcher (Reed & Johnson, 2014). Independent operators continue to be replaced by chains such as JD Wetherpsoon, Gondola Group (Pizza Express, Zizzi, etc.), Mitchells

and Butlers (Harvester, Toby Carveries, amongst others), The Restaurant Group (Frankie and Benny's, Chiquito, Filling Station, Coast to Coast), and at least 200 recognised others. Fortunately, cuisine is highly diverse in the UK industry, with Indian, Chinese, Mexican, Traditional British, American, Italian, and 'Quick Service' amongst the many available dining experiences (Reed & Johnson, 2014). Market growth was calculated at an estimated 16.7% across the period 2007-2016, with the branded restaurant market expected to appreciate a total worth of £29.4bn in 2016(Keynote, 2012; Allegra, 2012).

A gap in motivational factors has been identified, which has prompted this researcher's interest in researching and completing the PhD project. My motivation is to further explore factors specific to enhancing employee performance and retention in the UK Branded Restaurant Industry. Branded restaurant staff are in a position to improve their own behaviour and performance at work to encourage, or gently coerce, gratuities and tips from customers. A lack of inquiry into staff-sided factors of motivation, and subsequent reference of this to employee behaviour towards retention, suggests a need to further investigate the nature of staff behaviour. Although current theoretical literature offers many motivation techniques and factors, these are mainly developed by the organisation. The purpose of this study is to identify the effect of the drivers of flow and commitment amongst service workers in the UK Branded Restaurant Industry, and explore the extent to which Goffman's theory of institutions applies within it.

1.2.1 *Contributions of the Study*

In the final chapter, a number of contributions are discussed which have resulted from the analysis of data collected. This includes contributions to theory, the contextual of the study, and also to management practices in UK Branded Restaurants. From a point of theory, the study adds to Goffman's works and identifies that his traditional view of institutions can be applied to other contexts which opens up the opportunity to further employ this study, or parts thereof, to analyse actions and behaviours of employees of numerous industries.

The study is also the first large scale, quantitative, empirical study to combine Goffman, spirituality, motivation, and behaviour in the UK Branded Restaurant industry. This offers new data and discussion which is pertinent to those operating within managerial roles with a responsibility of employing and developing people. It identifies different

groups of people, and at which point they are prime for development. If applied to individual businesses, this study has the ability to change how managers think about their staff, if growth and development of the business is to be achieved.

1.3 Research Purpose: Introducing the Thesis

This thesis addresses empirical research in the hospitality industry, with a focus on staff motivation and behaviour, workplace spirituality, and the concept, or feeling, of flow which can be experienced when everything works properly and people ultimately enjoy going to work for the correct reasons. The hospitality industry, part of one of the most significant industries in the world: tourism, is responsible for close to 10% of global GDP and is forecasted to account for 10% of the global workforce by 2022 (Rugles-Brise & Aimable, 2012, Kent, 2010).

1.3.1 *Goffman, Institutions, and Behaviour*

Erving Goffman researched behaviour, social interaction, and their effect within institutions (Goffman, 1961). He identified how interaction integrates into everyday life and how individual behaviour may allow personality to develop, and discussed the ways in which institutional contexts may affect the behaviour, and therefore the personality, of the people within them (Becker, 2003; Goffman, 1983). Goffman asserted that an individual's personality and behaviour could be identified by the minute nuances demonstrated during interactions with others (Goffman, 2005). Goffman spent several years working in asylums, observing the behaviour of staff and inmates, and the repercussions reaped upon inmates failing to demonstrate the actions of people who were truly playing the game of becoming mentally well.

Goffman's theory of dramaturgy suggests that one may act out life in society as if taking on a role in a play, presenting oneself in a way in which society may see and offer acceptance. Presenting oneself in a certain manner may be enacted in order to leave an impression with potentially influential people within that particular setting. Dramaturgical theory also recognises that real life is not a play, nor imagined or rehearsed. While situations can be repetitive, each occasion is unique, with any number of potential influences (Brown, 2003).

Researching within the context of asylums, Goffman noticed that groups would identify other like-minded, fellow inmates (members), and cast off others (non-members). He

also noted the ability of these groups to operate together and lose their sense of self, and in the instance of Total Institutions, observed 'mortification,' whereby the normal institutional process of stripping physical items from new inmates extended to the psychological loss of an individual's self-identity (Goffman, 2005; Goffman and Best, 2005).

1.3.2 Motivation

Motivation means different things to different people: what motivates me? What makes me tick? What makes me work harder? Beyond these 'definitions,' there are a number of theorists researching motivation, and the behaviour encouraged from individuals who have been 'motivated' in specific ways. Findings claim to identify the optimum way in which to moderate behaviour through the application of motivational techniques (Abadi et al., 2011).

Abraham Harold Maslow and Frederick Herzberg are amongst the most widely-acknowledged motivation theorists. As a psychologist, Maslow is probably best known for his definition and exploration of the 'hierarchy of needs,' which focusses on the identification of psychological health through different levels of needs. These needs are prioritised, unique to individuals, and ultimately come to fruition in self-actualisation. Maslow identified human needs and described them as a hierarchy, depicted by the now iconic pyramid diagram. The creation of the pyramid model is used to identify goals which must be achieved, in order of priority, before self-actualisation can be realised (Maslow, 1943).

From the bottom up, the first four levels of the pyramid are described as Deficit needs (D-needs), beginning with the most basic needs to survive (air, water, food, sleep, reproduction). Following this are the needs to establish security, order and stability (nutrition, shelter, the feeling of being safe and secure in a dwelling or from predators). The third needs are described as those of love, or belonging (sharing ourselves with family or social groups). The fourth D-need comes in the form of esteem (looking for comfort from what has already been achieved and are identified as successful within social groups, resulting in respect). At the top of Maslow's hierarchy is the seeking of self-actualisation and satisfy a higher need of morality, creativity, the ability to accept facts, and perhaps act without prejudice: by satisfying the other needs, one will become a truly better person (Borkowski, 2005).

Frederick Herzberg, also a psychologist, came to the fore with a different theory of why or how individuals are motivated. Contrary to Maslow's theory of intrinsic motivations, Herzberg looked at the workplace. He identified the theories of job-enrichment, and motivation-hygiene (two-factor theory). Job-enrichment suggests that offering people the additional responsibility of additional tasks motivates and encourages people to work harder. This results in employees finding added meaning in their work in the notion that *they* need to complete tasks for the company to succeed. Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory identified certain workplace factors that can result in positive job satisfaction, and those which cause negative (or dis-)satisfaction (Herzberg, 2008; Herzberg et al. 1959; Williams and Anderson, 1991).

1.3.3 *Spirituality & Flow*

Individuals have boundaries in the form of an institutional setting, which may see changes in personal behaviour, and motivational theories which may also create a positive or negative change in behaviours in the workplace. So, why then, if people know what should work to make the office, factory, warehouse, restaurant, or hotel (for example) a hive of industry, does this not always come to fruition? It is often forgotten that those who are completing tasks in the workplace are prone to possibly irrational human behaviour and influence from others, and subject to psychological development and frequent changes of mood. Opinions, desires, mood swings, exhaustion, and expendability make humans extremely complex (Ashmos and Duchon, 2000; Byrne et al., 2011; Dehler and Welsh, 1994).

People also have values, beliefs, differing standards, and morals. Everybody has different levels of happiness, and different ideals of what will and will not necessarily bring happiness. This becomes increasingly complex when combining groups of different people, from different socio-economic backgrounds, with different beliefs, values, morals, and ethics (McLaughlin, 2005). Individuals find happiness in extremely varied ways; perhaps in material objects, knowing they've done the best possible job, or in the belief that doing their job has benefitted another person, or the organisation by which they are employed (McGhee and Grant, 2008).

It is therefore important to identify the types of people within the same workgroups, what motivates them, and how they respond to motivators. Understanding which values

must be met to result in happy workers will hopefully make for a better, more efficient workplace.

1.3.4 Deviance

In many instances, incivility leads to more serious bullying behaviour towards co-workers.; what may begin with discourteous or rude actions, can escalate to violence (Everton et al., 2007). As an insidious behaviour, slights and hostile looks between colleagues have the potential to become bigger, more damaging actions over the course of time (Greenberg, 2010). When employees believe that they are subject to unfair procedures or tasks, or are over-analysed (over supervised, tasks and breaks are overly constrained by time, for example), they have the tendency to become irritated and are more likely to resent supervisors or managers, and exhibit aggressive mannerisms. As Goffman suggest, the presentation of self and actions from attendees in the institution (Goffman, 1963), can lead to different displays. This can take many forms in context, including: "rude, foul and abusive language; repeatedly threatening dismissal; constant criticism; assigning meaningless tasks; humiliating and demanding conduct in front of other workers; ridicule taunts; confusing and contradictory instructions or constantly changing instructions; undermining work performance; isolating and excluding persons form various work activities; leaving offensive messages on email; blocking an employee's promotion; overloading of work; unexplained rages; unjustified criticism; withholding of information; hiding documents or equipment; setting impossible deadlines; excluding workers on a regular pattern; threatening action that could result in loss" (Workplace Health and Safety, 2002: p. 29).

1.3.5 Empirical Research: Methodology and Findings

The thesis called for a Critical Realism and judgemental sampling approach to the empirical research due to the focus on individual experiences and feelings. Critical Realism is explained later in this thesis; briefly, Roy Bhaskar's philosophical approach is a four-tiered analysis of existence. Transcendental Realism, Critical Naturalism, Explanatory Critiques, and Dialectics all complement and rely upon each other in the analysis of life and everyday goings-on (Archer et al., 1998; Bhaskar and Danermark, 2006; Collier, 1994; Danermark et al., 2002).

Whilst understanding and acknowledging theories, and theoretical concepts, the work here takes the above approaches as it is important to remain critical and recognise the

subjective nature of reality. In life one knows that a violin is a musical instrument and should be played as such. Whilst the instrument could also be used (perhaps not effectively) to tap bamboo canes into the ground to add support to sweet-peas and other such flowers, this is not normally the best use of a violin. One can apply this thought process to areas of research. Whilst acknowledging Goffman's behavioural theories, and those of the psychologists to try to motivate people in the workplace, it is appropriate to gauge the experience of what actually happens in real life by asking for information from those working in specific places, to ascertain their experience of motivational techniques. Furthermore, they should be asked for information to identify their specific values or beliefs, and also to ascertain if people taking part in the research are happy in their current vocation. To simplify this process, and acquire large volumes of data, the empirical approach to the data collection in this research project was quantitative, gathering responses from people by means of a survey, which was published online and distributed amongst staff working in the hospitality industry, for UK Branded Restaurant operators.

1.3.6 *Why Pursue This?*

Due to the extent of the hospitality industry's contribution to the global economy, it is important that the operators are protected in the delivery of their products and services. To operate businesses encompassing multiple sectors, a variety of types of people, from various socio-economic and education/professional backgrounds are continually resourced (Blomme et al., 2010b). However, the hospitality and tourism industries are often noted for failure to retain employees, and appreciate continual, and sometimes substantial, staff turnover. The thesis discusses the issues that this inflicts upon operators and the cost to their business. As branded restaurants in the UK continue to grow in numbers and popularity (Alder, 2013; Gerrard, 2012, 2013), the research will provide empirical evidence of how motivated and satisfied staff in the UK Branded Restaurant industry claim to be (from responses of a large scale survey).

1.4 Research Aims and Objectives

The aim of this study is to identify the drivers of motivation for staff in the hospitality industry, specifically UK branded restaurants. The questionnaire used to collect data from participants (Appendix H)

Specifically, the principal aim of the research is to identify key theories of motivation leading to employee retention, and to fill the gap between said theories, and the actual reasons for staff retention in the UK branded restaurant industry. To address this main aim, the study has six objectives:

i. To identify the drivers of flow and commitment affecting employees' flow and commitment, with a theoretical underpinning based on Goffman's theory of Total Institutions within the UK Branded Restaurant industry.
ii. To examine the nature of the drivers of flow (including motivation, spirituality, and deviant behaviour) on flow and commitment amongst a sample of employees in UK branded restaurant industry.
iii. To examine the nature of flow and commitment amongst a sample of employees in UK branded restaurant industry.
iv. To examine the relationship between the drivers of flow on flow (H_1, H_2, H_3).
v. To examine the indirect relationship between the drivers of flow on commitment (H_4, H_5, H_6).
vi. To examine the relationship between flow and commitment (H_7).

The hypotheses, as set against each aim above, are as follow:

H_1: Motivation impacts positively FLOW in UK branded restaurant industry staff (to address objective iv)
H_2: Spirituality impacts positively FLOW in UK branded restaurant industry staff (to address objective iv)
H_3: Deviance impacts negatively FLOW in UK branded restaurant industry staff (to address objective iv)
H_4: There is an indirect positive relationship between motivation and commitment, mediated by flow (to address objective v)
H_5: There is an indirect negative relationship between deviance and commitment, mediated by flow (to address objective v)
H_6: There is an indirect positive relationship between spirituality and commitment, mediated by flow (to address objective v)
H_7: Flow positively influences commitment (to address objective vi)

For the purpose of the research a large scale quantitative survey on UK Branded Restaurants was completed, specific to the topics explored. The social sciences tend to be dominated by a hypothetic-deductive paradigm, whereby research begins with theory, and uses data to test hypotheses (Taheri, Lu, et al., 2014). Identifying how relationships work, how different constructs interact or affect others, and testing them using quantitative techniques permits the researcher to quantify problems and establish mechanisms showing the way in which one variable may affect another. A quantitative study is systematic, based on hard data (i.e. numbers), and emphasises measurability and hypotheses testing (Bryman, 2008; Taheri, Lu, et al., 2014).

1.5 People in the Workplace

Goffman focussed his research in real-life situations, during which his studies permitted ethnographic analysis of the relationships between a figure of power, and one which should abide by the rules (Goffman, 2005; 1983; 1966). To an extent, this is very much similar to the staff-manager relationships which are evident in the workplace every day (Madera & Hebl, 2012; Hebl at al., 2000). The use of Goffman's works in a more contemporary, softer setting will therefore permit an analysis of relationships which will fundamentally enable one to understand what is appreciated as an everyday leisure activity in a different light.

1.6 Structure of the Thesis

Following this introductory chapter, the thesis will have four subsequent chapters. Chapter two offers a systematic review of literature pertaining to the research, and includes the works of Erving Goffman, Workplace Behaviour, a review of the theories including Spirituality and Flow, and then discussion which describes the history of the contextual setting, followed by contemporary restaurants and branded restaurants.

Chapter three explains the method employed in completing the data collection and analysis, which is followed, in Chapter four, with the results from the analysis of data collected from the population sample. Finally, Chapter five combines the findings and conclusions of the thesis. Throughout this chapter, a number of contributions to theory, contextual practices, and management practice are made.

Demographics

The supply of workforce in hospitality and tourism is a central element of the industry, given its provision of labour intensive service in a business environment (Kattara et al., 2008; Park and Levy, 2014; Szivas et al., 2003): "People are our most valuable asset" (Kimball and Nink, 2006: p66). Szivas et al. (2003) attribute the provision of labour from outside the industry to a number of different factors, including economic climate change, prompting the need for a change of direction, or a need to gain paid employment following redundancy in other areas. The movement of labour into the hospitality industry is often catalysed by its low barriers to entry, low-skilled nature of many positions, and the need of people to engage in paid work (Burke et al., 2013; Murray and Ayoun, 2011) . However, the flexibility of the industry allows it to offer a number of attractive opportunities (Burke et al., 2013; Murray and Ayoun, 2011).

Despite the enticement of flexible and varied work patterns, the approach to attracting different types of people into jobs, and the perception that a focus on diverse labour aids operators' achievement of business goals (Clark et al., 2008; Tsaur and Lin, 2004), organisations within the industry experience employee turnover of over 75 per cent (Park and Levy, 2014). Whilst diversity amongst work groups is known to bring many positive aspects including increased productivity, effectiveness, and problem solving capabilities (Taylor and Greve, 2006; Thomas and Ely, 1996), there are also a number of negative effects, e.g. upon commitment and employee intention to stay/leave (thus, tenure or length of service), as a result of conflict amongst the diverse attitudes and responses of work mates (Garib, 2013; Pelled et al., 1999). A summary of the following control variables is shown in table 1.2.

Age

One of the hospitality industry's main challenges is the art of attracting and retaining both qualified and motivated employees (Josiam et al., 2009). The associated academic literature discusses the changing trends in behaviour of "Generation X" and "Generation Y" employees, and the ways in which their differing attitudes to work both compare and operate with the previous generations of "Baby Boomers" and "Traditionalists" (Crampton and Hodge, 2007; Filipczak, 1994). A general representation of the generations is shown in figure 1.1.

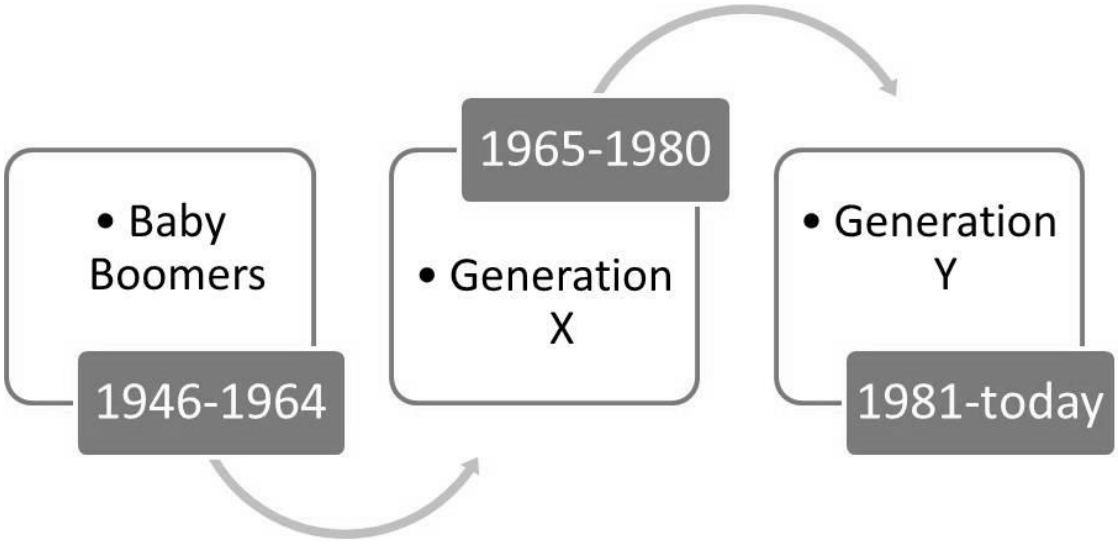

Figure 1.1: Generations

The generational split in industry today dates back to the Traditionalist/World War II (WWII) Generation, being those born before 1946. Whilst many are now retired, some of this group are still part of the workforce and demonstrate the traditional values of a steady, hard-working ethos, expecting commitment and loyalty from their organisation, and offering such in return (Festing and Schäfer, 2014; London, 2005; Schoch, 2012). The WWII generation is noted for being great savers and non-wasteful. The WWII generation also tends to believe that their age and experience give them a great deal of valuable advice to pass on to younger generations (Benson and Brown, 2011; Tavitiyaman et al., 2014; Zemke et al., 2013).

The groups that followed are all very different to the WWII group, and have evolved with each new generation to embrace different value sets (Festing and Schäfer, 2014; Zemke et al., 2013). Immediately following WWII were the 'Baby Boomers' (born between 1946 and 1964). With the economic upturn following the earlier war years, this new generation embraced prosperity and identified with the concept of jobs for life (Benson and Brown, 2011; Crampton and Hodge, 2007; Festing and Schäfer, 2014). Baby Boomers were born as a result of reunited families, and people looking toward a brighter future (Mankiw and Weil, 1989), and are seen to be highly motivated to commit, and compete in the workplace, mainly driven by the mass competition dictated by the number of peers (London, 2005): 75-77 million people (Festing and Schäfer, 2014; London, 2005; Mankiw and Weil, 1989).

Loyalty is not so valued by 'Generation X,' born between 1965 and 1981 (London, 2005). This less committed generation is more likely to flit between employers, with candidates often looking for the better deal, whether it be money or power (Twenge et al., 2010). As hard-working, entrepreneurial types, Generation X has grown up with exposure to technological advancement, the extent of which had not been experienced by previous generations (Festing and Schäfer, 2014). Advances in television, internet, computing, mobile technology (including telephones and computing) etc., have given members skills which are desirable and transferrable, resulting in a transient workforce which is willing to move to the opportunity that offers better means, including the ability to further develop themselves (London, 2005). This generation is often thought of as lazy (London, 2005), however, it is important for this generation to have a work-life balance, and their efforts are split between the two contexts in order to benefit from both parts of life (Beutell and Wittig-Berman, 2008; Twenge et al., 2010; Wyn, 2012).

Born after 1981, 'Generation Y' are almost an updated version of Generation X (Festing and Schäfer, 2014). They have similar values to Generation X and look for value from their career, which should also be aligned with the home-life, offering balance between work and leisure pursuits (Cennamo and Gardner, 2008; Del Campo et al., 2011; Vaiman et al., 2012). Technology has been fully available to them from an early age, whereas the earlier generation experienced the development of technology and adapted to it (Hills et al., 2013; Prensky, 2005). The immediate nature of extrinsic factors has made this generation border on impatient: modern technology offers immediate feedback, and this is now a prerequisite (Hills et al., 2013; Martin, 2005). It is the exposure to technology from an early age which has developed the approach to careers and management style of this generation (Hills et al., 2012). Video-gaming makes this generation very familiar and capable with information technology. Gaming has made a generation which can multi-task and work as a team. However, parental influence has given confidence – micro-management in the home has produced a generation that does not respond to such a management style in the workplace. Generation Y has seen the results of previous generations' emphasis on work, over leisure and home, and are not willing to commit to a similar fate (Espinoza et al., 2010; Hills et al., 2013; Murray et al., 2011).

Whilst two generations are more prominent, all generations are represented in industry today. Along with differing attitudes, businesses have also to cope with volatile

economic conditions, new attitudes towards family and home life, and lifestyles (Festing and Schäfer, 2014; London, 2005; Twenge et al., 2010). Diversity must be mediated within the operational workforce and a more accepting, focussed, and integrated labour set is necessary (Martin and Gardiner, 2007). With Baby Boomers nearing or being of retiring age, it is paramount that knowledge and experience is handed down to those who are willing to receive it (Arsenault, 2004; Benson and Brown, 2011; Fournier and Ineson, 2014).

Gender

The hospitality industry experiences continually high employee turnover due to a number of factors, including the lengthy working hours, low number and prestige of its career opportunities, and also the gender composition of the workforce (Burke et al., 2012; Kara et al., 2012). Tourism and hospitality operators offer a number of diverse job opportunities, requiring multi-faceted skillsets and possible work patterns, making them attractive to a vast range of candidates (Kara et al., 2012; Szivas et al., 2003), yet the 'glass ceiling' effect of hidden barriers to progression may hinder the role of the female worker in the industry (Bird et al., 2002; Fagenson, 1993; Yukongdi and Benson, 2005). Whilst there has been a noted increase in female participants in the workforce over the past thirty years, there are also a number of barriers to progression for female workers: internal constraints from the organisation, and external social influences, which to some extent continue to require a more traditional role in a family, or homemaker context (Blomme et al., 2010b; Guerrier, 1986; Yukongdi and Benson, 2005).

The role of women in the hospitality industry tends to be in more supportive departments such as operational staff level, human resources, sales and marketing, yet the progression to management and senior management positions has shown fewer actually make it to the top of hierarchies, as compared with male counterparts (Guerrier, 1986). More recently, however, work-family conflict has become a non-gender specific issue in the hospitality industry employment literature, whereby more participants, of both sexes, choose to withdraw, or limit progression to specific roles in order to balance their lifestyle (Blomme et al., 2010b).

A number of reasons have been identified for the gender disparity linked to career progression in the hospitality industry (Bird et al., 2002). Generally women are more

likely to enter lower or non-skilled work in the industry as direct service operatives (waiting staff, bar work, housekeeping in hotels, for example) (Bird et al., 2002; Kensbock et al., 2013; McKenna and Larmour, 1984). This has been historically attributed, in part, to the level of acceptance by male employees towards the anti-social working hours and requirement of mobility in the industry, stemming from the nature and location of many operating units of business (Bird et al., 2002; Purcell, 1993). The bias of 'old boy networks' within senior teams in the industry actively promote the progression of male careers, thus demotivating women from pursuing career advancement (Wood, 1992).

The difficulty experienced by operators in finding and retaining skilled, professional staff has created the need to offer diverse opportunities to diverse people throughout organisations with team management (Bagguley, 1990; Guerrier and Lockwood, 1989). The growth of women in part-time work has become the central force in industry employment restructuring, and more flexible employment (Bagguley, 1990; Robinson and Wallace, 1984; Townsend, 1986). There also lies an inherent problem in the industry with identifying and expressing exactly what constitutes 'part-time' work, in relation to the lengthy full-time hours, worked by such employees (Bagguley, 1990; Kara et al., 2012; Pinar et al., 2011).

The power balance in the hospitality industry is in favour of male workers, with females required to surmount workplace barriers in order to succeed (McCuddy et al., 2010), including the possibility of sacrificing marriage and motherhood (Blomme et al., 2010a), sexual discrimination and harassment, and female/male stereotyping of emotional welfare and ability (Kara et al., 2012; Pinar et al., 2011). Limited progression routes have an impact on satisfaction and commitment in the workplace (García-Bernal et al., 2005; Kara et al., 2012). The continued presence of vast numbers of female hospitality workers creates an important need to understand job satisfaction, given its relationship to tenure and consequent impact on service delivery in a highly customer-orientated context (Burke et al., 2013; Kara et al., 2012; Penny Wan et al., 2014).

Commitment and job satisfaction share a reciprocal relationship, and depend on both the employee and the employing organisation (Ryan et al., 2011). Longevity is hindered by the many barriers to women wishing to maintain a healthy work-family-life balance

within the hospitality workplace (Hoque, 1999a, 1999b). Whilst the industry offers various career routes, flexible hours, and commitment to loyal staff, its operators define the rules within which each of these are set. Hours can be extremely varied, certain roles can be extremely physical (housekeeping, waiting tables, bartending etc.), and the volatile nature of operating a business in times of financial uncertainty result in low job security (Hoque, 1999a, 1999b). These can create emotional stress and social issues in the home (Blomme et al., 2010a, 2010b).

If employees are happy in their employment then they are more likely to be motivated to continue creating better working conditions, and to experience feelings of optimism about continual progression and improvement within the organisation (Kara et al., 2012). This produces a positive effect on customer satisfaction towards the operator and its service(s) (Kara et al., 2012; Noe et al., 2010; Pettijohn et al., 2004). If employees experience dissatisfaction, resulting in the intention to leave, then the effect on customer experience is negative, i.e. happy staff equals happy customers.

Length of Service/Retention

"Employment is a voluntary relationship" (Milman and Dickson, 2014: 448) in that employees engage at their own will, no matter how much or little they wish to work with a specific organisation, and can leave whenever they please. The view that employees should be treated internally as customers offers managers and supervisors a proactive approach in employee retention, as opposed to reacting to turnover through leavers (Cardy and Lengnick-Hall, 2011; Milman and Dickson, 2014).

The cost of employee turnover is vast, estimated at £6000 per operational employee (Milman and Dickson, 2014). This includes marketing costs to advertise for replacements, training, separation costs (redundancy, pay-off, etc.), and the potential loss of staff productivity in the interim recruitment period (Hinkin and Tracey, 2000; Milman, 2003; Milman and Dickson, 2014). Staff turnover is mainly driven by dissatisfaction in existing roles, which catalyses the search for new job opportunities (Stalcup and Pearson, 2001; Wasmuth and Davis, 1983a, 1983b).

Whilst pay is a common issue, poor working conditions and supervision, or management, are often the key factors associated with employees' intention to leave their current position (Hinkin and Tracey, 2000). When people are not appropriately

supervised or led, they are left in the situation of having little responsibility for their role, leading to low levels of motivation and a feeling of repression from authoritative line managers (Hinkin and Tracey, 2000; Milman and Dickson, 2014). At an operative level, tasks can often be boring and repetitive: serving the same shift, carrying out the same cleaning duties repeatedly in a number of bedrooms, creating the same drinks every day, or repetitive preparation tasks in the kitchen (DiPietro et al., 2007; Riley et al., 2002; Robinson and Barron, 2007). This is not encouraging for people who wish to remain in the role in order to aid career development and progression (Hinkin and Tracey, 2000).

The financial compensation and benefits of intensive customer facing roles are relatively low, which is unattractive to those entering the job market (Hinkin and Tracey, 2000; Teng and Barrows, 2009). However, it is important to retain staff at this level as greater length of service in customer-orientated service roles has shown to positively affect the customer experience and service experience (Hinkin and Tracey, 2000; Kim et al., 2003).

The low skill level of operational jobs in the hospitality industry makes it difficult to create and provide a career path for existing staff, and does not assist in attracting new labour or talent (DiPietro et al., 2007; Pizam and Ellis, 1999). As people become bored, find different opportunities in other organisations/industries, they engage in voluntary turnover in order to improve their personal situation and career (DiPietro et al., 2007; Mitchell et al., 2001; Nadiri and Tanova, 2010; Pizam and Ellis, 1999). As it is anticipated that the industry will start to experience a shortening supply of employees (particularly hourly paid), competition amongst operators for those participants in the job market will become more intense, making the need for retention and extended length of service more pronounced (DiPietro et al., 2007; Hinkin and Tracey, 2000).

Operational level roles are often taken by young people looking for a first job, either starting their chosen career, or paying their way whilst studying (DiPietro et al., 2007). Whilst this is a valid explanation for turnover in specific roles, unless the individual is engaged at a higher level within the organisation, continuing their service, and progressing through development and promotion, the business finds itself returning to the start point, again and again (DiPietro et al., 2007; Milman, 2003; Milman and Dickson, 2014). Identifying predictors or possible causes of employee retention at

various levels should help in managing retention strategies and individual expectations (DiPietro et al., 2007). This should enable organisations to continue their success whilst potentially maintaining recruitment in times of a shrinking labour market (Deery, 2008; Dermody, 2002; Dermody et al., 2004).

It is therefore the management of an employee's length of service, or retention, which will enable the successful business manager to continue maximising profit (Heskett et al., 1994). To do this, it is important that organisations continue to develop recruitment and training methods, in order to attract the best people, and allow them to identify with the organisation (DiPietro et al., 2007; Kimball and Nink, 2006; Mathe and Slevitch, 2013). Whilst they may have joined the business due to attractive benefits and tempting salaries, it is their treatment, reward, recognition, and relationship with their line manager that will help to retain them, building team cohesion and the business over time (DiPietro et al., 2007; Sarpong and Rees, 2014).

By not managing employee retention, the organisation risks losing valuable intellectual and emotional capital (Walsh and Taylor, 2007), which can greatly impact the service experience of customers (Erickson and McCall, 2012). There is even the risk of losing valued customers who place significance on the relationship and familiar encounters with regular staff (Parsa et al., 2009; Scott-Halsell et al., 2008).

Table 1.2: Control Variable Summary

Moderator	Description	References
Age	Age brings experience in a role. This is dependent on the time that the individual has spent in the industry to specific job functions, whilst a person's age also brings with it emotional maturity. It is seen that an older employee (35 years old+) is more likely to stay longer in their current position longer than a younger person. The older employee interacts differently, with a more consultative and inclusive method of leadership, whereas younger managers and supervisors are more likely to be autocratic and want to lead the way with their own decisions. Due to other leisure and family obligations, it is more likely that older workers will have a different level of commitment to the organisation than the younger person who is out to start or progress their career. The hospitality industry has a historic and prominently negative approach to ageism, where it wishes to protect the physical image of the business. It prioritises speed, memory, ability to engage in physical roles and productivity, and also acknowledges compliance/resistance to change from different age groups (in favour of younger, more accepting staff, as opposed to older staff who may be set in their ways and less likely to want to change what or how they do things).	(Beutell and Wittig-Berman, 2008; Brown et al., 2014; Cennamo and Gardner, 2008; Crampton and Hodge, 2007; Del Campo et al., 2011; Espinoza et al., 2010; Festing and Schäfer, 2014; Filipczak, 1994; Fournier and Ineson, 2014; Hills et al., 2012; Hills et al., 2013; Josiam et al., 2009; London, 2005; Mankiw and Weil, 1989; Martin and Gardiner, 2007; Murray et al., 2011; Prensky, 2005; Schoch, 2012; Tavitiyaman et al., 2014; Twenge et al., 2010; Vaiman et al., 2012; Wyn, 2012; Zemke et al., 2013)
Gender	Gender bias is evident throughout the industry, and can be manipulated in order to create gender specific teams, from those at the top of hierarchy. It also plays an important role in job satisfaction and performance. Gender also has an effect on the psychological contract, commitment, and intention to leave. It is proposed that female employees are more likely to give consideration to their actions on a greater level than males, who will mainly consider the benefit to themselves, and the financial and benefits available to them from their progression elsewhere. Females in the hospitality industry are more likely to be professionally accredited, although they are more likely to experience barriers to progression due to the "traditional	(Bagguley, 1990; Bird et al., 2002; Blomme et al., 2010a, 2010b; Bruegel, 1979; Burke et al., 2013; Burke et al., 2012; Fagenson, 1993; García-Bernal et al., 2005; Guerrier, 1986; Guerrier and Lockwood, 1989; Hoque, 1999a, 1999b; Kara et al., 2012; Kensbock et al., 2013; McCuddy et al., 2010; McKenna and Larmour, 1984; Noe et al., 2010; Penny Wan et al., 2014; Perkins, 1983; Pettijohn

	role" as a woman that they are expected to carry out in their future – home-maker, mother. Women in the hospitality industry are still constrained by the "glass ceiling" and the invisible barriers thus created to reduce the possibility of achieving senior or executive positions. However, more modern operators in the industry offer roles and working pattern to engage both sexes. Flexible schedules allow people to work, where possible, around childcare needs, etc., in order to reduce the barriers to women. It is still to be seen how this can assist in the promotion or application to senior roles as flexibility can also result in employee intention to leave due to the uncertainty of work circumstances and the resultant emotional turmoil which can have knock on effects in personal life.	et al., 2004; Pinar et al., 2011; Purcell, 1993; Robinson and Wallace, 1984; Ryan et al., 2011; Szivas et al., 2003; Townsend, 1986; Wood, 1992; Yukongdi and Benson, 2005)
Length of Service	The cost of losing, and then replacing, people is vast and needs to be managed by the organisation. However, it is often difficult to maintain staff within low or entry level roles, due to the nature of tasks that need to be completed. People will often leave for more interesting work, more money, better benefits and, more often, better management. The loss of intellectual capital when a long-standing member of staff leaves affects competitiveness of the business due to the experience that they take with them. In the hospitality industry this is important – regular guests miss the person, the atmosphere that they created, and may move their business to a competitor if they have an emotional bond with the person who has left.	(Cardy and Lengnick-Hall, 2011; Deery, 2008; Dermody, 2002; Dermody et al., 2004; DiPietro et al., 2007; Erickson and McCall, 2012; Heskett et al., 1994; Hinkin and Tracey, 2000; Kim et al., 2003; Kimball and Nink, 2006; Mathe and Slevitch, 2013; Milman, 2003; Milman and Dickson, 2014; Mitchell et al., 2001; Nadiri and Tanova, 2010; Parsa et al., 2009; Pizam and Ellis, 1999; Riley et al., 2002; Robinson and Barron, 2007; Sarpong and Rees, 2014; Scott-Halsell et al., 2008; Stalcup and Pearson, 2001; Teng and Barrows, 2009; Wasmuth and Davis, 1983a, 1983b)

2. Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter offers a review of existing literature which is important to the overall body of the thesis. It begins with the basis of the works of Erving Goffman's total institution, which will be applied to the contemporary context of UK Branded Restaurants, in this study. The following sections of the literature review will evaluate theory surrounding the constructs of the conceptual model, whose relationships will be analysed later in the thesis. The constructs include motivation and motivational tools, Spirituality, Flow, and Commitment. The final section of this chapter will consider literature of the contextual setting, offering a definition for the broader theme of the restaurant, and then with a definition of the more focussed arm of this part of the hospitality industry, and the context for this study: the UK Branded Restaurant.

2.2 Goffman and Institutions

Goffman is considered one of the most important sociologists in the twentieth century, focussing on the organisation of observable, everyday behaviours, more often in urban settings (Manning, 1992). Using a variety of qualitative methods, Goffman developed classifications of the different elements of social interaction, and the hallmark of his approach was the assumption that these classifications were heuristic, simplifying tools for sociological analysis that did not capture the complexity of lived experience (Rawls, 1987). His work is understood as a reaction against three dominant intellectual traditions of this time. The first is the 'grand theory' of Talcott Parsons, the second is the psychoanalytic approach of Sigmund Freud and the third is the positivistic, quantitative trend of many social scientists of this era. Goffman's work is therefore a response to these three gravitational pulls (Manning, 1992). Goffman's theory of Total Institutions and the roles played within them provides key insights into the actions of employees at branded restaurants.

2.2.1 *Institutions*

Before considering Total Institutions as an organisational concept or framework, it is important to consider early work by Goffman, where he takes part in a year of study during which he presents himself as a member of staff in a mental asylum (St. Elizabeth's Hospital, Washington, D.C., USA) (Goffman, 1961). This gives Goffman the opportunity to embrace life in the asylum and report his findings on the life of both staff and attendees within the institution (Becker, 2003). So as not to confuse a total

institution primarily with a mental asylum or hospital, the study will consider inmates as "attendees" within the institution and the staff as "attendants". An analysis of Goffman's most prominent works are detailed in table 2.1.

Goffman's year of study led to a small number of "stories" featuring the staff and attendees of the institution, the processes and schedules endured by those residing in the institution, and their social situations (Goffman, 1961). Total Institutions have frequently been considered the solution to dealing with anti-social problems: associated with poverty, crime, insanity and delinquency (Fortune and Whyte, 2011; Foucault, 1979; Rothman, 1972) by removing temptations present in the outside world (Fortune and Whyte, 2011; Rothman, 1972). However, his works on etiquette draw different meaning of how people can present themselves, which will be considered further in section 2.2.2 (Insiders) (Solomon, et al.. 2013). There are also criticisms of Goffman being obsessed by the world of appearance, in so far that he became increasingly aware of people and how they present themselves, which leaves open the concept that he did not fully identify the social context, and culture around the individual(s) being observed at each moment in time (Raffel, 2013; Handler, 2012).

Asylums have been in existence in a traditional sense since the Middle Ages, with Europe providing home to one of the oldest establishments: Priory of St. Mary, Bethlehem. A place for homeless psychotics or institutions for the demented, the asylum soon became shortened to Bethlem (later shortened to Bedlam) (Shorter and Marshall, 1997). Historically, asylums (also general hospitals, madhouses, or private nervous clinics) had no pretence of prescribing treatment or care, but were places of incarceration, merely custodial institutions that were merciless in their conditions of hygiene, and corporal punishment delivery. Curability of madness through therapy was not perceived until during the eighteenth century, with the notion of confinement and therapy through asylum physicians: the birth of the psychiatrist (Shorter and Marshall, 1997).

2.2.2 *Goffman's Concepts of Social Behaviour*

Throughout his work, Goffman devoted himself to the analysis of micro sociological studies and developed a number of theoretical concepts which were used to identify behaviours in those within the institutions which he observed (Solomon, et al., 2013). His concepts are discussed below, and summarised in table 2.1. His illustration of the

Total Institution depicts psychiatric hospitals in another light (Goffman, 1961). They remain places of incarceration but with therapeutic functions, places of perceived safety for people (often held against their will, though occasionally under voluntary admission) (Scott, 2010). Here, doctors played an important part in the patients' stay, wielding the power to remake personalities and determine their social fates. For Goffman (1961), the spatial aspect of the institution was paramount. Physical confinement left attendees with limited access to a multitude of tangible and intangible assets: material possessions, time, personal space, and control of everyday practices. As such, other organisations may be presented as institutions: army barracks, prisons, boarding schools, etc. (Lieberman et al., 1968). Wallace (1971) explains that these places were for the improvement of disorderly groups of people, but is it fair then to include boarding schools in this group? Are privileged families ultimately sacrificing their children to education as a means of rectifying their behaviour?

Portrayed as rational organisations, total institutions are seen to function as 'storage dumps' for attendees, however, these organisations also have the goal of achieving the reformation of individuals according to ideal standards. As in many environments, the work of the staff in a total institution (such as an asylum) is to do with people (Shorter and Marshall, 1997). And, as in many environments, a patient (or attendee) will be handled by many different care providers throughout their experience, as would be the case of a customer experiencing a journey through a service provider or experience (whether it be during single or multiple visits to perhaps a restaurant, theme park, etc.).

Throughout his work, Goffman devoted himself to the analysis of micro sociological studies and developed a number of theoretical concepts which were used to identify behaviours in those within the institutions which he observed (Solomon, et al., 2013). His concepts are discussed below, and summarised in table 2.1.

Social Interaction

Goffman defined two different concepts of social interaction by which people can enter either the "front" or "back" stages (Goffman and Best, 2005) whereby the attendee presents themselves in a certain manner (i) in front of an audience, or (ii) in privacy, where they can be free to be their true self (Kao and Schmandt, 2015; Gregory, 1994; Kendon, 1990). This identification of who you wish to be represents a catalyst for conversations with colleagues when brought into the front stage persona (Kao and

Schmandt, 2015; Goffman, 2005). The social catalyst (Karahalios and Donath, 2004) creates the opportunity to indulge in conversation, social interaction, with others who are present and may be an area of interest, or an object of social signal, such as a piece of jewellery, pen, or even a mug in the workplace (Kao and Schmandt, 2015).

As a catalyst, the object or occasion can cause different reaction from others in the social setting, which would then trigger an associated response e.g. a mug with a happy face may encourage others to engage in friendly conversation; or, an item of tourist paraphernalia (pen, etc.) may encourage a discussion of holidays and travel, permitting the attendee to indulge others in stories (Kao and Schmandt, 2015; Lamertz and Martens, 2011; Lowe et al., 2012; Ren and Gray, 2009). However, these provocations of thought and conversation may be used to mislead others. By choosing whether one wishes to present oneself, or an altered image, objects and other social catalysts may be used to depict a certain identity, or to create an opportunity for conversation in which the self may be misrepresented to others in the social gathering (Samra-Fredericks, 2010); Goffman, 2005; Karahalios and Donath, 2004).

Mortification

To introduce the institution as a vehicle for the journey of mental wellness, re-invention of personal behaviour, or a place of total control (Wallace, 1971), one should consider the voyage of self from the initial admission. At this point Goffman introduces the process of mortification, whereby the recruit (to the institution) enters with some social aspect of who he is and what he possesses, by representation(s) of "social arrangements in his home world" (Goffman, 1961). The mortifying process commences on admission with the stripping process, by which the attendee is stripped of all aspects of the social arrangement. Czarniawska (2009) elaborates on the simpler term of 'institutions' as being a collated pattern of action, which is reasoned to be what is accepted as a norm or control. The 'total' of a total institution relates to the boundaries created to distinguish the outside from the inside spatial context. Through the initial process of mortification, people are stripped of all personal belongings, including clothing, any mementos from home, jewellery, for instance, and issued with standard garments, which remove any association of social class in the outside world (Wynter, 2011). As time is spent on a day-to-day basis in the 'institution,' further control is exacted on access to anything that is of personal value. Personal space is also limited and confined, and may be routinely

alternated with another cell so as not to confuse any emotions which may grow to make the cell or living space that attendee's own (Scott, 2010).

An initial abasement is experienced: the condition that a total institution is completely separated from the outside world. The attendee is unable to freely make contact with anyone present in their previous, outside life, which is now confined by the boundaries of the building (Farmer, 2014). Physical confinement is a key feature of a total institution. In the case of a prison or asylum, inmates/patients are restricted in their daily movements and routines, which are set and bound by the organisation. Limited time is allotted to spend "socialising" with other attendees residing in the institution (Scott, 2010).

Other forms of mortification (Goffman, 1961) included contamination, whereby the attendees were subject to poor quality or tainted food and meals, substandard living arrangements (Jacobsen and Kristiansen, 2014; Goffman, 1961; Johnson and Dodds, 1957; Orwell, 1953), and disease from other inmates or rodents. The attendees were often exposed to undesirable partners within these confines, which would cause further humiliation by mixing age, ethnic groups, racial communities (Farrmer, 2014; Goffman, 1961).

Dramaturgy

Goffman also refers to the attendees as actors (Scott, 2010), and in need of taking the hospital's view of them. Throughout the duration of incarceration, it is said that attendees were stripped of any notion of self (belongings and ultimately identity) and had their behaviour remodelled. During the course of long-term treatments, they experienced 'moral loosening' and chose to abandon their 'status' (Schwalbe and Shay, 2014; Shorter and Marshall, 1997) within the hospital, thus relinquishing any power that they may previously have had over the self. By playing along and displaying the required behaviour the attendee behaves in a way that enables them to progress socially within the institution, hopefully leading to their release. Other behaviours that may be adopted to 'get by' were physical withdrawal (making oneself inaccessible to staff), intransigence (non-cooperation), colonization (during which they would accept the cynical role of a complainer), and conversion (where they would genuinely go through a process of changing attitude and behaviour). Conversion was the only one of these

requiring full immersion in the role of a mental patient, whereby the attendee would almost accept and embody the institutional classification (Schwalbe and Shay, 2014).

Power

Control of daily routine is also removed from the attendee. The institution and its attendants decide on appropriate timings and schedules; which will also be controlled insofar as how much time, and with whom, the attendee spends. Again, this may be routinized or alternated so as not to encourage relationships between inmates (Wang, 2015; Tabin, 2014). These micro level encounters may be used to shape the behaviour of the individuals throughout the duration of their time in the institution, by means of temporal control created by the attendant throughout the attendees' day-to-day schedule. These people are thus being controlled passively by the institution's arrangements for the period of stay with minimal, if any, individual autonomy (Goffman, 1983).

Temporal regulation of social situations removes the ability to create distance within the relationships of attendees, both amongst co-habitors, and also with their respective visitors. Whilst lack of contact with the outside world is required for practical reasons during treatment, it is suggested that the introduction of more frequent visits to institutions of incarceration may result in a reduction of incidents of misconduct (Cochran, 2012). Goffman does not consider time spent in activities, or participation nor the affect which this may have on attendee behaviour. In the workplace, however, time can be used to manipulate future situations by employee's ability to alter how they behave in the workplace, with future reward in mind (Qian et al., 2015). Cunliffe and Boje (2004), however, consider duration (Bergson, 1938) and the impact which this can have on future activities and the way in which they are approached by the employee (Cunliffe & Boje, 2004).

Presentation of Self

The attendees began to portray the image of self-demanded by the hospital. By complying and giving a 'cynical performance' (playing the system) the attendee could aid their release from the institution. By playing a game of power in which they would seem to conform, they were able to manipulate the power of those treating them, so regaining their sense of control and identity (Lee, et al., 2015; Goffman, 1961; Shorter and Marshall, 1997). This gives way to 'make-dos' and resistance in everyday life:

apparently conforming to prescribed institutional rules in order to gain release and return to their identity.

Self-presentation in order to conform to the behavioural expectations of a specific context sees the individual engaging in a role of interplay. In any organisation, this actor must identify the traits and values which are acceptable, and portray them in a believable manner that appeals to the supervisory individual or role (DePaulo et al., 1991; Hewlin, 2009). These façades require the individual to suppress their true values in order to adopt those valued by the organisation. Building a bridge between self-presentation and conformity, often by using tactics such as remembering the target's name or by using statements of flattery, shows how willing a person is to act in order to benefit themselves (Baumeister, 1982; Cialdini and Goldstein, 2004). As a result of these small acts, a successful 'ingratiator' will find their target to be conformant and consequently appreciate compliant behaviour from them. This compliance is then likely to be repeated with every successful act of the ingratiator's own conforming behaviour toward the target, and others (Gordon, 1996; Howard et al., 1995).

Any concerns that the individual has about performing in self-presentation are deemed as motivators for the subsequent behaviour (Lee, et al., 2015; Hewlin, 2009). Often, fearing group pressure and identified as a non-conformist, or deviant to the organisational norm, the individual will engage in self-presentation in order to be part of the group or team (Baumeister, 1982). An adverse reaction to this is the decision *not* to conform and present oneself in any form other than that which is true, fearing that the individual may be perceived as weak if they are willing to bend their persona to that which fits with peers or the organisation, resulting therefore in making a bad impression (Braver et al., 1977; Cialdini et al., 1974).

The view of total institutions has shifted from being a place of repression to one of voluntary attendance: places of reinvention for the damaged soul or celebrity in need of rehabilitation from their latest alcohol, drug or sex enthusiasm, as opposed to a correctional facility for the perverse obsessive, criminally insane or somehow delusional individual. These institutions are seen as escapes in order to voluntarily reinvent the self. Yet this aspect of voluntary attendance is driven by a need to be there. The discursive façade hides an operation of power which ultimately controls, or moulds, the re-invention of the attendee (Lee, et al., 2015; Scott, 2010).

Scott (2010) describes how power relationships build between the attendee and attendant in charge, with reinvention being a product of the organisational framework and the time spent within the bounds of the institution. The remaking of individual identities was a process of exercising power over the inmate through various methods, rather than the repair work of institutional professionals within an isolated environment. The limited social situation and practices within was method enough to initiate changes within the individual's (patient's) social behaviour.

Table 2.1: The Works of Erving Goffman

Context	Theory	References
Social Interaction (Ethnomethodology)	Via Interaction Ritual, Goffman explores the identification of countless patterns and natural sequences of behaviour occurring whenever persons come into one another's immediate presence. These patterns are shown to establish an element of social structure. A social status ordering pattern founded upon interpersonal deference and power relations.	(Kao and Schmandt, 2015; Goffman and Best, 2005; Karahalios and Donath, 2005; Gregory, 1994; Kendon, 1990; Lamertz and Martens, 2011; Lowe et al., 2012; Ren and Gray, 2009; Samra-Fredericks, 2010)
Mortification	An "inmate" in a total institution undergoes a process of self-mortification, being a loss in self-esteem and a loss of social identity which have a depressive effect, through the stripping of both physical and psychological assets. Whilst this process is most obvious during admission procedures to the institution, it is often continued throughout the inmate's stay to further strip and demean the individual.	(Furber-Gillick, 2011; Jackson et al., 2009; Kanter, 1968; Karmel, 1969; Lau et al., 2007; Liamputtong, 2006; Mouzelis, 1971; Rohlfsen, 2004; Verhaeghe and Bracke, 2008)
Dramaturgical Approach	Draws on the role of personal confidence, exemplifying the tools-to-theories heuristic. The depiction of confidence man's behaviour closely mirrored how sociologists describe the practice of participant-observation. Represented as embedded and attentive, detached observers skilled at playing different roles as the situation necessitated. The similarities between professional behaviour and the activities of the confidence man may have suggested to Goffman the latter as a model for human nature.	(Brown, 2003; Eriksson, 2004; Lowe et al., 2011; Messinger et al., 1962; Nelson, 2009; Pettit, 2011; Tseëlon, 1992; Young and Massey, 1978)
Power	While not generally a power theorist, implicit in Goffman's work is a relatively coherent conceptual scheme concerning power, influence, and control.	(Clegg, 2009; Fine and Sandstrom, 1993; Kolb, 1985; Lee, 1983; Ling and Yttri, 2006; Rogers, 1977; Scheff, 2006; Williams, 1986)
Presentation of Self	Individuals offer themselves to the group through a demeanour that grants deference. Here, demeanour is an achievement, a cooperative social accomplishment, and a form of deference. It is an ideal by which individuals gain acceptance as competent group members.	(Bayley, 2005; Moore, 2006; Patriotta and Spedale, 2011; Tannen, 2009; Telles, 1980; Trammell and Keshelashvili, 2005; Tufekci, 2008)

2.2.3 *Contemporary Institutions*

A number of types of institutions exist, such as prisons, boarding schools, places of work, asylum, but history has seen a change in the practices and roles typically associated with these places. Therapeutic clinics, or communities, were designed to direct journeys of lucid, normal behaviour from madness as existential voyages of discovery. Over a period of around twenty years this reverted to a more routine delivery of pre-prescribed treatments, and the association of inmates as patient-types as opposed to offering a tailored service to individual clients which may now include addictions such as gambling, eating disorders, internet use and excessive behaviours (Scott, 2010).

Utopian retreats offer communities for those who feel marginalized by modern culture and offer retreat from "contaminating ideologies, such as consumerism." These may be likened to a commune, where one is removed from the materialistic outside world and allowed to live in accordance with what nature or the other members have to offer. Whilst living a more basic lifestyle, this member-orientated situation betrays an element of elitism, with boundaries in place between the inmates and outsiders.

The roles and actions of groups (departments, social groups, and work units) also contribute to creating an institutional life (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983). It is this notion of institutions that moves one to consider the application to any other industry and question, to what extent, other organisations experience totality within their confines. Whilst Goffman has created the image of a total institution as being a place of incarceration, the role of attendants and attendees is very much visible in workplaces today (Goffman, 1983). Many workers enter their place of work, have limited access to personal items, and do not (voluntarily or otherwise) engage outside the spatial confines of the premises throughout the working day. Through training, development, quality goals, standards of practice, hordes of staff are required to adapt their behaviour to that desired by their employer on a daily basis. Thus workplaces may be considered as temporary or short-term total institutions. The concept that this concept can be applied to other organisation types is highly important to this study and underpins the contextual setting, as one which hosts social interaction, a number of different types of people who may present themselves in a manner by choice, or simply through their natural behaviour fuelled by beliefs and values.

Individuals enter their place of work every day without identifying that it may be some sort of institution. The day-to-day workload is most often controlled by a manager or supervisor who expects employees to undertake tasks in a role that is largely based on their personal abilities and characteristics. Personal characteristics identify a person and their place in the overall scheme. Work behaviours are also affected by personal characteristics: a happy person may smile a lot at work, and a motivated person will demonstrate this through their behaviour in the setting. Over time, the individual will experience different pressures at work: time constraints, the behaviour of those around them, and the need to achieve the goals of the organisation. In turn, these pressures may require the person to change the behaviour they display in order to succeed in their role, and pay homage to the responses expected by the supervisor or manager.

As a consequence of their choice to engage in self-presentation, the individual will make a further choice. It may be that their decision to act out a role at work leads to favourable results, thus returning them to the personal characteristics stage of the cycle. In this instance they will start to alter the way in which they perceive themselves, in order to further benefit and achieve more at work. However, there is also the chance that the change in behaviour may be derogatory, or deviant, perhaps also as an attempt to further achievement in their organisation.

2.2.4 *Criticisms of Goffman*

Goffman's works are heavily based on impression management, and around what he observed people to be and how they portray themselves in certain situations (Raffel, 2013; Handler, 2012). Whilst it is understood through spirituality literature which is (discussed later in this chapter) that people engage naturally in situations whereby they find alignment in belief and value systems which are similar to their own, Goffman's presentation of self is criticised in this light as people often *need* to constantly adjust themselves to situations they do not always wish to be in (Charmaz, 2014).

The value of appearance, whilst setting the scene of dramaturgy, is relative to many everyday occurrences in the workplace or social world surrounding it (Briggs & Thomas, 2014; Morawski, 2014). Through altered imaging or presenting oneself in a different manner than that which is natural to us (Mannheim, 1970), we are able to change perceptions of reality, and ultimately ourselves (Urick, 2014). An altered image changes the tendency of groups to associate the individual with a stereotype, creating an

example of dramaturgy in the workplace in order for the employer or consumer to believe that the portrayer is something they are not. This brings a paradoxical relationship between the self, commitment and flow, by portraying an ultimately deviant streak, in trying to be someone other than who we really are (Morawski, 2015). In line with the presentation of self, Rammstedt and John (2007) have created a shortened inventory and subsequent questionnaire used to collect data for analysis of the types of characteristic that people portray. Their survey has been combined in this thesis due to its benefits of shortened response in order to clearly identify styles and types of personality (Rammstedt & John, 2007) for people who have a short amount of time available to invest in completion of the survey. This is also advantageous in reducing the time required, encouraging more participants to complete the survey used in this study (Batinic & Bosnjak, 1997).

2.3 Historical Overview of Motivation Literature

Originating from the Latin *'movere'* (meaning 'to move') (Glare, 1982), motivation is understood as moving or driving a person to do something. Since the mid twentieth century, many theories of motivation have been developed and applied to the field of organisational management and human behaviour (Ruthankoon and Ogunlana, 2003). Being generalised into two main concepts of content and process theories, the focus of motivation has been mainly on individual needs and achievement desires and addresses the factors that stimulate people to progress and accomplish goals (Borkowski, 2005; Ruthankoon and Ogunlana, 2003; Udechukwu, 2009).

2.3.1 *Motivational Theories*

Mainly developed by Maslow (see for example, Maslow, 1943; Maslow, 1970) and Herzberg (for example Herzberg, 1976; Herzberg, 2003; Herzberg et al., 1993), concept theories concentrate on the needs of individuals and aim to identify the factors motivating people (Ruthankoon and Ogunlana, 2003; Wentland, 2001). Process theories apply the 'why and how' of motivation (Ruthankoon and Ogunlana, 2003), and investigate the thought process of why people intrinsically choose to act in a specific manner over another in the workplace. This may influence employees' level of job satisfaction, their sensitivity to workplace events and also the pace and success of work activities (Bowling et al., 2005; Dik et al., 2008; Johnson and Yang, 2010; Williams and Anderson, 1991).

Maslow posits a number of exceptions, suggesting that as needs are often specific to the individual, so some may feel stronger about a specific need, disrupting the hierarchy (Maslow, 1970). For example, the inability to satisfy the need to achieve love may result in behaviour that is derived from aggression or self-confidence – a higher opinion of self. In this instance they identify the need of self-esteem as being more important and achievable than that of love/affection/belonging (Cullen, 1997; Maslow, 1970).

During the 1950s and 1960s, Frederick Herzberg researched factors affecting employee motivation. Herzberg exposed a dichotomy that continues to confuse organisational leaders and managers (Herzberg, 2003). The factors that satisfy and motivate people in work are different from the factors that have the opposite effect, those which would result in dissatisfaction. Herzberg developed the two-factor model, which focusses on 'motivating' and 'hygiene' factors (Barber, 1986; Herzberg, 2003; Hyun and Oh, 2011), or satisfiers and dissatisfiers. The role of hygiene factors is to prevent discontent. A lack of hygiene factors can lead to employee dissatisfaction (Armstrong, 2003; Hyun and Oh, 2011). In contradistinction to Maslow's theory, Herzberg's motivating factors are intrinsic to what people actually do as part of their job, rather than factors that people strive to achieve. They should be engineered to be inherent to the work processes being completed (Herzberg, 1976; Hyun and Oh, 2011; Wiley, 1997).

2.3.2 *Motivational Instruments*

Appraisal

Work group motivation research states that leaders and managers need to understand what motivates their employees in order to influence team performance and productivity (Antelo et al., 2010). Performed appropriately, an appraisal system makes it possible for organisations to achieve their goals through developed employee performance (Najafi et al., 2011). Accomplishing tasks and a high level of performance is also an important factor to the individual as it is a source of satisfaction and pride (Kovach, 1980, 1987; Sonnentag and Frese, 2002). Low performance and lack of accomplishment may be dissatisfying and give feelings of personal failure to the employee. Furthermore, succeeding and accomplishing, if identified by leaders or managers, is often a basis for financial reward or receipt of other benefits in the

workplace, such as career development, promotion, and heightened success in the field of work (Sonnentag and Frese, 2002; Van Scotter et al., 2000).

As an evaluation and management system, employee appraisals identify and assess individual performance and use the data collected to aid performance improvement within a work environment (Rao, 2008; Rasch, 2004). Viewed as a strategic approach to integrating and aligning human resource and organisational policies, they are considered a generic term enveloping a variety of means used by organisations seeking to assess their staff, and subsequently enabling both performance and reward distribution (Fletcher, 2001; Kuvaas, 2006). A more modern view of appraisal systems is that they can be defined as being developmental (Fletcher, 2001; Lefkowitz, 2000) and pursue the enrichment of attitudes, skills and experiences that enhance employee effectiveness (Boswell and Boudreau, 2002). In order for a performance appraisal system to be a successful and influential and motivating tool, the employee being appraised must deem it as a constructive experience and demonstrate a positive reaction to the process (Kuvaas, 2006), if not it is likely that the scheme will fail in its efforts of supposed improvement (Cardy et al., 1994; Murphy and Cleveland, 1995).

Typically an appraisal system presents performance targets for staff members, and the evaluation cycle should provide feedback on progress related to target or goal achievement (Brown and Benson, 2003). Concluding with a (more often than not) numerically or graded assessment of individual performance, the organisation can identify where the individual is placed on a scale of meeting organisational goals and to what extent the person is achieving in favour of the establishment's benefit (Brown and Benson, 2003; Tuytens and Devos, 2012).

Whilst the appraisal process identifies how to encourage the workforce into a motivated stat, and a tool to increase efficiency and productivity, it should be remembered that the process can elicit negative as well as positive response (Brown and Benson, 2003). As feedback should help to increase learning and knowledge opportunities through critical responses, it is also likely that corrective action be required for poor performance to improve completion of goals (Ilgen and Davis, 2001) and, whilst cognitive reactions from the appraised are expected, this form of criticism may also provoke an emotional response. Pride and happiness as a result of positive feedback, or guilt and disappointment following criticism, have a relational effect on motivation and

individual behaviour (Belschak and Den Hartog, 2009; Smith and Lazarus, 1990). It is also argued that action resulting from negative feedback could further motivate the individual by encouraging them to achieve that which was not originally achieved (Ilies and Judge, 2005) or, it may cause the individual's goal or achievement levels to be adjusted downward, if their abilities are such that it would not be realistic, as identified from the appraisal process, for the new objectives to be completed successfully (Kluger and DeNisi, 1996).

In order for performance management to sustain its primary goal of exerting a positive effect on the ability of employees to improve and change (Aguinis, 2009) for the benefit of the organisation, many managers may be guilty of withholding the full extent of negative feedback to further encourage the individual. However, this does not reflect honestly the behaviour and motivation being experienced and may hinder team or organisational performance further (Cron et al., 2005). By sparing the feelings of the employee, the manager would be removing the opportunity for quickly identifying opportunities for behavioural change or engaging other means to drive the employee to have a positive effect on motivation to perform appropriately, or as required (Medvedeff et al., 2008; Smither and Walker, 2004). Similarly, managers, whether they be Human Resource department assessors, or departmental line managers or supervisors, who falsify appraisals by rewarding improper behaviour or below standard performance with positive feedback, are likely to influence the behaviour of other employees, who in turn will become accepting of incorrect behaviour which can undermine organisational operations (Selvarajan and Cloninger, 2009).

Not only is it important for managers to engage appropriately in the appraisal process, and to deliver honest and direct feedback, it is also essential that the employees' involvement is positive from the outset and they believe in the system as a route to development and improvement (Leigh et al., 1988). Using performance appraisal as a commitment to human resource systems, including employee development, engages in influencing employee behaviour and motivating attitudes (Lee and Bruvold, 2003; Whitener, 2001; Wood and de Menezes, 1998). Soltani et al. (2006) discuss that, in fact, many existing studies report negative effects of employee engagement in performance appraisal systems (Soltani et al., 2006). It has been found that many employees demonstrate a level of distrust in appraisal schemes, along with elements of suspicion and fear of the process (Beardwell and Holden, 1997; Gabor, 1990) which not

only diminishes the system in its efficacy as a motivational tool, but suggests it may also be a resounding failure and fully unsuccessful in its own goals as an indicator and enhancer of performance within organisations.

Having a well-motivated team is important, however motivation is not something that can be implemented immediately and requires to be created by the use of motivational tools and is dependent on a number of factors that are pertinent to each individual being motivated (Forsyth, 2006). As individuals, people all differ and what motivates one person may not the next. Some may be encouraged to perform by being incentivised or greater earning potential, another person may wish higher identification with their job and its role in an organisation or society (Frey and Osterloh, 2002). Understanding the employee, their needs, and what they will perform for, has never been more important in today's employment market (Stringer et al., 2011).

Empowerment

Empowerment is part of an ongoing process experienced between a pair or group of people (Pastor, 1996). Empowerment has been considered intrinsic to management constructs since the late 1970s (Collins, 1999) and can be considered as two different concepts: (i) personal empowerment i.e. individuals use social capital in order feel powerful enough to control what happens in their own lives, enabling achievement of goals (Bong-Ho et al., 2006), and (ii) working with others to develop their levels of self-esteem, autonomy, and growth in a relationship environment (Pastor, 1996; Whiteside et al., 2011).

Motivation enables staff to make decisions (Chow et al., 2005), solve problems, recover poor acts of service, without necessitating the involvement of the person above, for example a supervisor or line manager (Kelley and Lee, 2010). Empowerment enables task completion without line manager involvement. It is often seen as exploitation as managers and supervisors negate levels of responsibility (Duane and Finnegan, 2003; Hyvönen et al., 2009), however it permits staff to be included as part of decision making and engages them in the process of how they should complete tasks (Lamperes, 2004; Sohrabi et al., 2011).

As an integral part of the overall management process (Forsyth, 2006), empowerment begins with attitude and communication and must be administered with a specific level

of staff autonomy in mind (Ji-Eun, 2012). For example, it may be counter-productive to either restrict staff (Hyvönen et al., 2009) or, on the other hand, enable them with too much autonomy leaving them with the feeling that they must be in control at every point in the working day (Haque et al., 2011; Yun, 2011). Either extreme has the potential to restrict individual initiative or creativity when ultimately required (Leece, 2003; Sun et al., 2012). Self-sufficiency in the workplace has to be defined clearly so that staff understand what is (i) required, and, (ii) expected of them. Therefore clear guidelines have to be prepared in order for empowerment to contribute effectively as a motivator enabling achievement of individual and organisational goals (Atkinson, 1996; Forsyth, 2006; Shields, 2010).

Reward: Financial and Non-financial

Managers consider using both financial and non-financial reward strategies, and are able to acknowledge the consequences of applying either to motivate employees (Pouliakas, 2010; Zani et al., 2009). Zani et al. (2009) also state that financial gain is the most effective incentive used in society today and is employed as a powerful motivator (Young et al., 2012). Llewellyn et al. (1999) go on to describe financial incentives as not only direct monetary gain such as increased salaries but also in the form of increased spending power, including bonus schemes, financially rewarded target achievement (Flodgren et al., 2011; Llewellyn et al., 1999). Alexy and Leitner (2011) describe financial rewards as appropriate practice as extrinsic motivating factors to enhance human behaviour stimulus and task oriented achievement (Alexy and Leitner, 2011), however they also tell us that the norms of payment decrease individuals motivation, thus suggesting that using money as in financial motivation is not wholly sustainable throughout the process of managing people and enhancing their performance.

Positive behaviour displayed by those who react well to extrinsic (financial) rewards suggests that there is little loyalty to the overall success of their organisation, and that they are more committed to achievement of personal goals purely to increase their income or spending power (Pfeffer and Lawler, 1980). This, in itself, advocates that individuals who are motivated by money are not fully committed to the well-being of their organisation, and therefore the others around them. Indeed, one may suppose that this behavioural attitude has the tendency in some to lead to not only selfish behaviours over other team members, but also demotivating those who appreciate and experience

that under-achieving leads to under-reward and therefore the loss of any incentive that was offered (Harder, 1992) as well as the feeling of failure (Dawson, 2008; Pearce, 1983). By focussing purely on achieving targets for monetary gain, the extrinsically "motivated" employee also has the potential to damage the business by diminishing the attention paid to the needs of the customer (whether they be internal or external to the organisation) (Dawson, 2008), or, indeed, the manipulation of data that supports the lack of accomplishment which would nullify the possibility of any financial reward (Caldwell and O'Reilly, 1982).

Non-financial rewards are intrinsic to the body of either the organisation or job role (Manolopoulos, 2007). Factors such as opportunities to display creativity and initiative, and the value of the importance of work outside the organisations domain, are motivators which do not experience direct financial reward. Woodruffe (2006) continues by describing a further list of important non-financial motivating tools (table 2.2):

Table 2.2: Financial and Non-Financial Motivators

Motivator	**Description**
Advancement	Employees are motivated by the opportunity of career progression and promotion within their organisation
Autonomy	People welcome empowerment and embrace being afforded the autonomy to conduct work tasks within their own power, without interference from line managers
Treatment	Continual effort is required to ensure that recruited individuals and teams are treated correctly by line managers to reduce staff turnover – changes in staff and poor treatment will adversely affect the ability for the organisation to achieve, and also the morale of other employees
Employer Commitment	It is important that employers display their commitment to teams and individuals to exert feelings of satisfaction from staff
Environment	Pleasant working environments encourage people to succeed and this is also a factor that may help to reduce stress in the workplace
Exposure to Management	Approachability of, and notice from, senior people in the organisation enhances morale and attitude of employees
Praise	Positive feedback and appraisal of staff is a keen motivator and enhances emotional well-being in order to improve human motivation behaviours
Trust	Gratification from feeling trusted within job-role is key to motivating teams and leaves individuals with the feeling of status. Bestowing earned trust not only confers

	importance of the individuals involvement, but results in loyalty and yearn to achieve for the organisation in addition to oneself

(adapted from Woodruffe, 2006)

This suggests that intrinsic motivation prompts engagement in tasks or activities that offer inherent satisfaction of achieving set goals. This display of commitment is also more important than being able to demonstrate achievement through financial gain in our world as it is today (Pulfrey et al., 2012).

The concept of prosocial motivation (Grant, 2008a) which enables the enhancement of persistence, performance, and productivity by encouraging commitment to a purpose (Thompson and Bunderson, 2003) is seen as a more effective motivator. Providing feedback, demonstrating good employer practice, and assuring individual activities to something that will benefit more than oneself, are more effective in motivating over financial factors (Grant, 2008a; Meglino and Korsgaard, 2004; Shamir, 1991).

Job Satisfaction and Career Choice

Job satisfaction is defined by Locke (1969: p. 316) as "the pleasurable, emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating one's job values" (Locke, 1969) and job dissatisfaction as "the unpleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as frustrating the attainment of one's values" (Locke, 1969). Herzberg earlier defined job satisfaction as comprising of the satisfaction of two factors; hygiene and motivation needs (Herzberg et al., 1959). From this Herzberg et al (1959), created the theory that hygiene factors could be cause of dissatisfaction at work if they did not exist in the individual employees work environment. Factors that are extrinsic to the job role, such as supervisory support, social relationships at work, working conditions, etc., do not, however, result in full job satisfaction if fulfilled themselves (Furnham et al., 2002; Gunlu et al., 2010; Williams and Anderson, 1991).

The actualization of job satisfaction is key to managers and the concept of having individuals react in a desired way at work is all consuming (Tietjen and Myers, 1998). Behavioural change to incentive programmes and previously mentioned forms of motivation is not enough (Tietjen and Myers, 1998) and job satisfaction is crucial for management to create commitment, confidence, loyalty, and ultimately improved quality of work and performance (Armitage and Keeble-Ramsay, 2009).

With a number of concepts acknowledging job satisfaction (see, for example Herzberg, 2003; Herzberg et al., 1993; Locke, 1968, 1970, 1976; Locke et al., 1970) it has become apparent that attitude toward work has been the all influencing factor in specifying behaviour motivating individuals in a work place setting (Tietjen and Myers, 1998). The values placed on their job, and tasks entailed therefore become the foundation of how said attitudes develop.

As job satisfaction is an important factor in maintaining performance and efficiency, it is imperative for organisations to explore and sustain it within job roles to enhance productivity. (Gunlu et al., 2010). Key to employee satisfaction in job roles are the organisations managers, as these are the people who can impact the overall state of well-being of the employees and their enjoyment of work (Lau and Chong, 2002; Lok and Crawford, 2001). If managers themselves are not committed to the organisation, this not only questions their own ability to be effective within the business, but has a knock-on effect to their subordinates and diminishes the ability to derive a sustainable form of satisfaction from their own role (Gunlu et al., 2010).

As managers continue to understand motivation and job satisfaction, Herzberg's theory has been complimented by that of Locke, thus importance is place on drawing together attitude and value of work goals which lead to job satisfaction (Mazanec et al., 2001; Tietjen and Myers, 1998) and organisational commitment, which refers to the extent that which satisfied employees are loyal to their employer, and show little instinct or notion to leave for other employment opportunities (Bateman and Strasser, 1984; Chen, 2006; Gaertner, 1999; Schwepker, 2001).

Job satisfaction itself relies largely on the attitude of the employee – are they motivated or not? However, attitude then relies on a number of needs being satisfied throughout the job role, which then refers mainly back to the motivation and hygiene factors of Herzberg (Herzberg et al., 1959; Tietjen and Myers, 1998). This theory, prompted that job satisfaction is not in relation to the job or tasks being completed on a day-to-day basis, but rather were the environmental factors which could be grouped to show happy feelings and good attitudes toward work, or the opposite (Tietjen and Myers, 1998).

Warr (2011) has since identified 12 principal characteristics affecting happiness and unhappiness at work which are directly related to the features of a job (Warr, 2011). These features are environmental and require clarity in order to plan and organise oneself around work for the future, proposing that job satisfaction enables organisational commitment (organisational commitment will be discussed later in this chapter). Warr's job characteristics are summarised below, and although environmentally-centred, they comprise of both intrinsic and extrinsic factors, to also combine person-centred factors (table 2.3):

Table 2.3: Warr's 12 Job Characteristics Affecting Happiness and Unhappiness

Job Feature	**Themes and illustrative sub-components**
Opportunity for personal control	Personal influence, autonomy, discretion, decision latitude, participations
Opportunity for skill use and acquisition	A setting's potential for applying and developing expertise and knowledge
Externally-generated goals	External demands, challenge, underload and overload, task identity, role conflict, required emotional labour, competition from others, work-home conflict
Variety	Changes in task content and social contacts, varied work location
Environmental clarity	Predictable outcomes, clear requirements, role clarity, task feedback, low future ambiguity
Contact with others	Amount of social contact, quality of social relationships, dependence on others, team working
Availability of money	Available income, pay level, payment of incentives for results
Physical security	Working conditions, degree of hazard, quality of equipment
Valued social position	Significance of a task role, contribution to society, status in valued groups
Supportive supervision	Consideration by bosses, fair treatment by supervisor, concern for one's welfare
Career outlook	Job security, the opportunity to gain promotion or shift to other roles
Equity	Justice within one's organisation, fairness in the organisations relations with society

(adapted from Warr, 2011)

Employees who experience different levels of happiness (or unhappiness), may risk achieving equilibrium. This means that changes can cause them to temporarily by return to a neutral point of satisfaction (Cummins, 2000; Headey and Wearing, 1992). By returning to a baseline of individual happiness, this would also affect motivation

through job satisfaction and pose a significant threat to commitment, and possible consequence toward turnover intention (Boswell et al., 2005).

Motivation theories have been researched widely however, to analyse relationships between constructs in this study, Wiley (1997) and Bakker (2008) have been reviewed and used in the assessment of the constructs, and subsequent questionnaire. Wiley (1997) researched the relationship of behaviours in line with different factors of motivation to enter (and return to) the workplace. The study focuses on values which can be related to the hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1943) whereby employee beliefs and values need to be met to some extent to encourage participation in the workplace. This study has been included, and questioning employed in data gathering, to identify the relationship with behaviour and motivation.

Similarly, Bakker (2008) studied the manner in which to identify and discriminate the extent to which flow and motivating factors were related. The WOLF (Work-reLated Flow) model and questioning has been employed in this thesis to assess the relationship between these constructs.

2.4 Historical Review of Workplace Behaviour

2.4.1 *Organisations and Work Groups*

As a socially designed infrastructure (Bratton et al., 2007; Feld, 1981), the work organisation consists of a group of people with something identifiable in common. The social structure refers to the processes created by this group of people, to be used in order to achieve an aim or goal of the organisation itself (Perrow, 1967). Typically hierarchical, the work group will operate by a means of operating procedures, communication tools, and control mechanisms which are likely to be coordinated and repeated on a daily basis (Bratton et al., 2007). The success of these social structures relies greatly on helping behaviours displayed by the employees or group members (Grant and Patil, 2012; Katz and Kahn, 1978). Helping behaviours are pro-social and intended to benefit others by encouraging relationships to foster and develop in the work place, creating harmony and an environment that people wish to work in and complete tasks in (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986; George and Brief, 1992; Van Dyne and LePine, 1998). Developing relationships in such a manner ensures that helping behaviours become the fundamental foundation of organising in the workplace, which is

deemed as being the process of co-ordination for employees or group members efforts for the completion of organisational or group goals (Grant, 2008a).

The next common characteristic is the direction of individual behaviour actually being toward the completion of organisational goals (Bratton et al., 2007). Typically, profit-making organisations will set financial goals or targets to which action is oriented (Bratton et al., 2007; Taylor et al., 2002). Striving for power and profit, capitalist organisations are pathological and relentless in their pursuit to achieve goals that are engaged with its own self-interest, often to the detriment of other individuals (and organisations) involved with its operations (J. Bakan, 2004). Whereas a non-profit making organisation focusses on improving the welfare of others in and around itself, the sole focus of a profit making corporation is protecting financial well-being (Joel Bakan, 2004; J. Bakan, 2004), with the only similarity being survival: whether it be for internal (profit making) or external (non-profit making) benefit.

The third characteristic of work organisations is the factor of boundaries that establishes membership within the work unit, and distinguishes those that are internal and external to the group (Bratton et al., 2007; Sundstrom et al., 1990). Advice, involvement, committees are all applications which assist work group effectiveness in achievement of organisational goals and further develop the group as a socially influenced network (Brass, 1984; Sundstrom et al., 1990). Finally, the fourth common characteristic of a work group, or organisation, is its connection to external society and the resulting effects ort influences on the environment out with that of the workplace or group setting (Bratton et al., 2007). A number of by-products are considered here, including levels of consumer satisfaction, pollution, and political power (Arnal et al., 2003; Schneider et al., 2005). It has also been argued that Western corporations use their size and power to protect themselves from social consequences of their actions (Babb, 2005; Stiglitz, 2004).

The purpose of an organisation is primarily linked to the owner/operator which may be an individual, small business, family operation, national or multi-national conglomerate, with different ownership types ranging from private sole traders, to corporate ownership with partial private and company shares, and also public companies which are traded on the stock market (Bratton et al., 2007; Hartley et al., 1991). Whether individual profit, or share/stakeholder return is key, identifying and committing to a purpose, and

engaging in successful operating behaviour is paramount to the overall goal of the organisation (Hartley et al., 1991). Organisational purpose itself requires imagination to devise, and commitment to maintain (Reyes and Kleiner, 1990).

2.4.2 Behaviour

Organisational behaviour studies a number of factors that affect individuals and groups within the workplace. Bratton et al.'s (2007) simple framework, makes it possible to identify the influences on the prime feature that is present i.e. the individual, which in turn effects the behaviour of groups and the organisation itself (Bratton et al., 2007). The organisations strategy will be pre-determined and laid out by senior management. Processes designed at this level will shape the organisations outcomes by creating work related tasks which will be adopted by the members or employees (Bratton et al., 2007). From this, entrepreneurship may be fostered, depending on the recipient of the designed process and the affect it has on their personal situation and job tasks, whereby members or staff will assist in the development of future tasks and processes (Åmo and Kolvereid, 2005).

People join organisations as individuals and bring with them different viewpoints, attitudes, and cultures (Bratton et al., 2007; Chatman et al., 1998). Members have the ability to influence the behaviour and performance of those around them. Many issues may arise through interaction with people from different backgrounds being exposed to other similarly diverse groups with reference to views on race, class, gender, physical ability and disability, and ethnicity (Pelled et al., 1999). Whilst organisations encourage equality and safe work places, they have little control over the early behaviour of people and their attitudes (Gagnon and Cornelius, 2000). The result of negative behaviour is adverse to the productivity of other individuals, work units or departments, by the development or hindrance of cohesion amongst people in the group (Haslett, 2002; Kaplan, 1975; Kaplan, 1976).

Job performance is not only highly important to organisational success, it is crucial to the motivation of individual members within the business in order for them to complete through goal and objective achievement (Grant, 2008b). In this instance behaviour is highly dependent on the creation of work processes and task design that will encourage positive behaviour from those that are responsible for carrying out the jobs, satisfaction from this has a resulting positive effect on other people within the group or workplace

as one feels happy at achievement rate and perceived success (Morgeson and Humphrey, 2006). Tasks and work activities are divided to be filtered throughout the organisation, thus defining its structure (Bratton et al., 2007). Where tasks are specialised and developed by means of a hierarchical style, a bureaucratic and mechanistic structure evolves (Bennis, 1966) which may be criticized for inhibiting personality growth and their rigidity of control (Merton, 1968). Alternatively a low level of control and hierarchy would create an organic arrangement (Covin and Slevin, 1988; James and Jones, 1976) where the individual is identified as key to organisational success (Lichtman and Hunt, 1971), but is criticised for being assumptive of member needs being the same across all individuals (James and Jones, 1976), where ultimately it is understood that all people are different (Scarr and McCartney, 1983).

2.4.3 Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment refers to the extent of a member or employees emotional attachment and identification to their involvement with the organisation, the level of which will relate to the effort that they are willing to exert to their work tasks or job (Bratton et al., 2007). Organisational commitment itself has posed interest in two main areas of study; how commitment defines the relationship between member and organisation, and also the methods that individuals display their commitment to organisations (Meyer and Allen, 1997). A number of definitions have been offered by researchers across multiple disciplines for the term of *commitment*, without any singular, generalised idiom being identified (Meyer and Allen, 1997) to refer to. From these multiple concepts, Meyer and Allen (1997) have identified three components to model commitment: affective commitment, cost-based, and obligatory/moral responsibility.

Affective commitment identifies the employee's emotional attachment with their organisation (Meyer and Allen, 1991) and refers to those who commit to, and stay with, their organisation as they wish to do so, and feel that their identity and that of the organisation start to become as one, (see, for example, Hall et al., 1970; Kanter, 1968; Sheldon, 1971). To generalise the work of these prior works would be to state that affective commitment occurs on an emotional level, when employees become fully integrated, and immersed, and attach themselves psychologically to the goals of the organisation (Rijavec et al., 2006). A cost-based approach to considering commitment prompts that employment longevity occurs as employees are aware of the personal loss

associated with leaving (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Whilst this may be considered monetarily with reference to salary, it is also important to contemplate non-financial implications through the loss of time spent whilst previously committing to, and building relationships with, the organisation (Becker, 1960; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Kanter, 1968). Obligatory, moral (or normative) commitment transpires when individuals experience satisfaction following a process of successful relationship development, and sees the investment and effort as sufficient need, or right, to stay with their organisation (Marsh and Mannari, 1977; Wiener, 1982; Wiener and Gechman, 1977).

2.4.4 Deviant Behaviour in the Workplace

Nair and Bhatnagar (2011) state that deviant workplace behaviour can be demonstrated in a number of ways, all of which are considered counter-productive, causes of dysfunction, and displays of antisocial behaviour (Griffin et al., 1998; Hogan and Hogan, 1989; Storms and Spector, 1987), in the work place. The cause of great financial loss to organisations, other authors have indicated that research has previously favoured the more positive aspect of workplace behaviour such as commitment (for example, Bennett and Robinson, 2000; Murphy, 1992; Robinson and Bennett, 1995). Whilst the previous description explains deviant workplace behaviour as a number of smaller, almost insidious issues (Nair and Bhatnagar, 2011), culminating in ill-feeling and the demonstration of illicit acts, the impact of employee deviance being the cause of multi-billion dollar losses to the global economy (Murphy, 1992), prompts a greater need for further interest in workplace and employee deviance traits in business today.

Status is often cited as a cause of deviant behaviour, with research focussing more often on lower grade employees (Hollander, 1958), enabling more senior members to maintain social dominance and exert power (Bowles and Gelfand, 2010b): a display of management deviance itself? Resultant behaviour at the higher status level is displayed by hierarchical differentiation with regards to belief of deserved privileges, differing levels of rule abidance due to tiered shifts in freedom of creativity (Hollander, 1958), whereas those at a lower level in the organisation yearn to achieve ideals such as equality and fair treatment (Sidanius, 2001). However, this would suggest that lower status employees should demonstrate better behaviour to achieve their own increased status and a more idealistic workplace, existing literature implies that they are the more deviant groups in the organisation (Bowles and Gelfand, 2010b), however these authors

research identifies that status- and social-linked status do effect workplace deviance, with a higher level of deviance being displayed by the lower-status workers.

Litzky et al. (2006) suggest that managers are to blame for inadvertently promoting deviant traits to foster in their subordinates in so far as they are able to identify deviance and allow this to continue. For example, around 60% of employees are prone to engage in theft from their organisation and a similar amount have previously admitted to acts of subterfuge or deception where the quality of their work has been actively compromised, embellishing product attributes to customers, or even accepting small pay-offs (bribes) (Litzky et al., 2006). As these behaviours are adopted by others, the acts of deviance become repeated and greater in frequency throughout an organisation, it is likely a warning signal that the traits are being witnessed, allowed to continue, and almost accepted by management as part of the ongoing, day-to-day routine of work, and manage this as everyday goings-on (Van Fleet and Griffin, 2006). Managers permitting minor occurrences of misbehaviour to happen is perhaps the most obvious manner of developing negative action, however it is also possible for senior status members to foster engagement. By management providing poor working conditions workers become unhappy and feel that they deserve more, which is attained by theft, lower levels of conscientiousness, disregard for colleagues, and disrespect or non-approval of senior decision making and rules (Colbert et al., 2004; Griffin et al., 1998; Kidder, 2005).

As deviance is demonstrated by individuals, it becomes associated as voluntary and part of human behaviour and personality (Bennett and Robinson, 2000; Colbert et al., 2004; Robinson and Bennett, 1995), and has negative implications to both other individuals in the workgroup or work associates, and the organisation itself (Judge et al., 2006). Using the five-factor model (Judge et al., 2002), it is possible to demonstrate the ways in which personality can be categorised as relationships with deviant behaviour and, whilst the five factor model is commonly used as a motivation identification tool, it is also now a method of showing dimensions of bad behaviour (Miller et al., 2003). A summary of deviant behaviour analysis has been applied to Judge et al.'s (2002) Five-Factor Model, below (table 2.4).

Table 2.4: Five Factors of Personality with Deviance Indicators

Personal Trait	**Deviance Indicator**	**References**

Neuroticism	Neurotic behaviour is seen as a weakness, and shows an inability to lead, resulting in a muddled view of organisation goals and achievements, which has the propensity to engage further deviant behaviour.	(Podsakoff et al., 1990; Wang et al., 1998)
Extraversion	Social dominance, dependant on the organisation or surrounding area culture, will either reduce or allow deviance to occur.	(House and Howell, 1992; Judge and Bono, 2000)
Openness to Experience	Continual improvement can cause ambiguity, conflict or stress amongst subordinates.	(Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1985; Judge and Bono, 2000; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Wang et al., 1998)
Agreeableness	The idea that power is created by distance over employees inhibits the ability for agreeable relationships to reduce deviant traits in order to create harmony in the organisation.	(Hofstede et al., 1991; Judge and Bono, 2000; Wang et al., 1998; Wiggins, 1996)
Conscientiousness	Positive behaviour is embraced by those in a committed relationship with their organisation, and vice-versa.	(Avolio et al., 1996; Barrick and Mount, 2006; Hofstede et al., 1991; Judge and Bono, 2000)

(adapted using Judge and Bono, 2000; Shao and Webber, 2006)

Further to their earlier work together, Bennet and Robinson (2000) embarked on an empirical study to define deviance in the workplace. Their work developed a noted measurement of workplace deviant behaviour which characterised tendencies, and tested the relationships between levels of deviance amongst participants. The study also acknowledges the varying severity of expressions of deviance (Bennet & Robinson, 2000; Robinson & Bennet, 1997; 1996), hence it being combined in this study.

2.4.5 *Aggressive Workplace Behaviour*

Aggressive and violent workplace behaviour has been classified into four indicative typologies as described in table 2.5 (Loveless, 2001). It is the intention of this study to focus on Type III events in workplaces (which are caused by, and affect, those internal to the organisation) and the means by which hostility is delivered.

Table 2.5: Violence/Aggression Types

Violence Classification	**Typology**	**Description**

Type I	Criminal Intruder	The committer of violent acts has no formal affiliation or relationship with the organisation which is being subjected to attack. Normally, this type of violence is committed by an unknown perpetrator whose intent is robbery or other crime.
Type II	Client/Customer Violence	Here the assailant will either be a recipient of the organisations products, or user of its service. Likely candidates include current/former customers or clients, patients (medical services), passengers (transport), prisoners/inmates/suspects (judicial system).
Type III	Internal Employee	Offender is either a current or former employee of the workplace and causes violence toward an employee within the organisation with whom there is either current or previous dispute.
Type IV	External Candidate	Whilst this perpetrator does not have a formal affiliation or employment with the organisation, they do have a known personal relationship with the person being inflicted with violence.

(adapted from Loveless, 2001)

At an extreme level, Type II violence has been developed to include fatal incidents toward workers (Baron et al., 1999; Loveless, 2001), for the purpose of this study, non-fatal incidents of aggressive behaviour will be included only, to enable active data collection from potential recipients of aggression from colleagues. Aggressive behaviour which is harmful to the organisations operatives does not only include physical behaviour, but also verbal attacks, sexual harassment (which will be discussed later), managements strict adherence to rules and regulations, to name a few of an exhaustive list of possibilities (Everton et al., 2007; MacIntosh, 2005). This type of behaviour ranges from incivility or anti-social, which may be intentional or not (Cortina and Magley, 2009), to outright violence, during which other individuals are either mentally or physically damaged (Neuman and Baron, 1998), and often resulting in the victims reduced level of commitment to their organisation (Everton et al., 2007; LeBlanc and Kelloway, 2002).

Both psychological and physical abuse in the workplace are often initiated by power struggles or battles – you either have it and use this to your advantage, or yearn for power in the organisation and will do anything to gain it (Cortina et al., 2001; MacIntosh, 2005), in fact a startling 71% of investigate cases of bullying in the workplace are carried out by superiors against subordinates, with only 12% of cases being from lower ranking employees targeted upward to supervisory and management

colleagues (WBTI, 2003), and it is more likely that reported incidents will be made official or reported by women than men (Hoel et al., 2001; Johnson and Sacco, 1995). However, once reported, unless minor incidents are appropriately addressed and managed, it is possible that initial incivility or arguments will escalate to heightened levels of bullying and violence in the workplace (Zapf and Einarsen, 2001), which have been linked to violent behaviour external to the organisation within society (MacIntosh, 2005).

The impact of workplace bullying has several serious negative effects for not only mental, but also physical and social health (Dewa et al., 2004; Glendinning, 2001; Vega and Comer, 2005). As targets of bullying are more often the competent people who work hard and are committed to the company (MacIntosh, 2005), costs to the organisation are harmful in respect of lower productivity due to people resigning following bullying, resulting also in a loss of their intellectual property and creativity. Similarly, those who are bullied are more likely to use sick days and take time off to either recuperate or avoid being subjected to anti-social or deviant behaviour from co-workers, reducing organisational efficiency (Ayoko et al., 2003; Vega and Comer, 2005). Situations such as these occur, and the impact effect can tend to grow, with non-effected or non-target employees being required to complete additional tasks where budget or resource constraints do not permit additional staffing to replace either those who have left, or those who are taking time off: this continues to domino, and can affect the remaining employees health, as stress levels start to increase, reducing their own task quality and productivity (Curtis and Wright, 2001; Einarsen, 2003).

Bullying impacts people on many levels, specifically their health and well-being. Whilst physical violence may leave obvious marks or scars, the mental aspect of taunting, aggression and stressful situations are more difficult to recognize, and value (Coyne et al., 2000; Glendinning, 2001). Many will suffer from lack of sleep, episodes of depression (both and home, at work, and also during and after attacks from bullies), and general mental health problems. Not only do victims experience negative emotions, they often feel that they must protect their image within the workplace, resulting in immersing themselves in hard work to try and strengthen respect from supervisors and bullies alike, which can result in a heightened level of stress being exerted on an already traumatised person (Ayoko et al., 2003). It is not therefore surprising, that victims of

workplace bullying have even considered taking their own lives to escape from a somewhat hellish work existence (Rayner et al., 2002).

2.4.6 Sabotage

Whilst the scope of sabotage varies greatly from property vandalism (Klein et al., 1996) to negative acts of deviant behaviour (Brown, 1977), the common theme is that it is an intentional act that is damaging to an organisation (Greenberg, 2010), as a result to the saboteurs environment (Ambrose et al., 2002). Other intentions of the saboteurs actions may be to create bad publicity, bring embarrassment to the organisation, stopping production lines from operating, or causing harm to either customers or staff (Crino, 1994). Existing literature suggests five categories for committing acts of sabotage in the workplace: powerlessness, frustration, facilitation of work, boredom/entertainment, and injustice (Ambrose et al., 2002).

Resulting from a lack of autonomy in the workplace (Allen and Greenberger, 1980), *powerlessness* sabotage is attractive to those who wish to change the balance and attain power or control at work for the sake of having it. By trying to realize a benefit to either themselves or the workgroup, the saboteur may try to change their bargaining position, or perhaps even damage pertinent physical equipment to secure an additional, or longer, break or rest period (Ambrose et al., 2002).

Organisational frustration refers to the individuals state of frustration with that moves them to acts of sabotage that will interfere with the achievement of the organisations goals and aims (Spector, 1978). This may be led by a lack of resources to complete their job tasks cathartically, perhaps lashing out at the equipment provided or made available, however inadequate it is for its intended use, resulting in damaging property (Cohen, 1973). Whilst individuals can certainly find that powerlessness drives frustration, organisational frustration is driven by its relationship purely to job tasks involved with achieving goals (Ambrose et al., 2002; Griffin et al., 1998). The *facilitation of work* shows that the act of sabotage can be used to try and make work activities easier to complete (Ambrose et al., 2002; Bensman and Gerver, 1963), normally by obscuring the rules and using them to achieve an advantage, as opposed to exercising power. For example, an employee may use a shortcut, which in due course may compromise the quality of the tasks outcome; Taylor and Walton (1971) refer to airline manufacturing staff who chose to re-thread nuts in the manufacturing process as

opposed to moving away from the work area to obtain new materials, in order to save time, with potentially fatal effects from using adapted supplies.

When the principal objective is to relieve *boredom* and create an element of entertainment, or fun, at work, sabotage has been known to play a role (Ambrose et al., 2002). Employees may opt to play pranks, change the time on the office clock, or set off fire alarms, in order to cause amusement for themselves and colleagues (Crino, 1994). Finally, *injustice* relates to sabotage which occurs from employees who feel that they (or others) have been ill-treated, whether distributive (relating to tangible outcomes, such as income or promotion), or procedurally (relating to the assignment of work tasks and procedures) (Cropanzano and Greenberg, 1997). Whilst there is a lack of literature to suggest which of the above motives are dominant in acts of sabotage, Ambrose et al. (2002) have predicted that injustice is the major cause.

It has been shown that the goal of saboteurs is to restore equity; to achieve what was deemed suitable compensation that the individuals felt was deserved, but not earned or received (Adams, 1965; Ambrose et al., 2002). In this instance, sabotage is seen as a method of redistributing wealth, roles, resources, etc. to a state of equity for organisation members, by the members themselves (Adams, 1965). More recent research has shown that individuals carry out acts of sabotage for other reasons, for example against mistreatment in the workplace, where injustice prompts revenge attacks against whoever has morally mistreated the individual, whether it be a superior exercising power, or subordinate seeking to attain a power relation in the business unit (Folger and Skarlicki, 1998; Griffin et al., 1998).

Often, the motivation to sabotage can be defined as either of two types of responsive action: instrumental, or expressive (restoration of equity, or reprisal). A restoration goal would refer to sabotage being committed in order to attain an increased reward, whereas reprisal, or revenge, would see acts of retaliation in order to cause harm to whom so ever has dealt the originally unfair blow to the "victim" (who then becomes the perpetrator): ergo, the situation arises from a potential bully, who encourages equally deviant behaviour in return (Neuman and Baron, 1997).

Two further dimensions of sabotage as deviant behaviour are the target (i.e. the person or organisation that is harmed by the acts) and severity (the extent of the harm being

inflicted (either minor or serious) (Bennett and Robinson, 2000; Robinson and Bennett, 1995). Typifying sabotage as such, enables acts to be categorized into ranges of severity, such as minor (taking five extra minutes on a lunch break) to major (theft) (Ambrose et al., 2002). A framework created by Robinson and Bennett (1995, page 562) allows the systematic examination of the relationship between causes of sabotage behaviour, and groups of different severities (Ambrose et al., 2002), which indicates where a selection of different acts of sabotage are in relation to the target (organisation or individual) and its severity.

2.4.7 Lying and Deceipt

Perhaps one of the most common deviant behaviours in general, let alone the workplace, lying is part of everyday life and whilst there is a negative association with the term lying, people ignore this and continue to do it, to varying degree, day in and day out (Greenberg, 2010). Of the many reasons for lying, gain or benefit to the liar is a common factor whether it be for tangible, financial gain, or to cover up an infidelity, error at work, or to retain power by shifting the blame for something onto another team member, subordinate, or superior (Grover, 2005). Other reasons for lying at work include fear: lying in order to protect oneself from a punishment for something that you have done, or have been perceived to have done; habitual fear: lying becomes a reflex or habit, to cover a constant fear of being blamed or punished for something; and, modelling behaviour: the adoption of lying having seen someone else benefit from the same behaviour, or going unpunished by means of lying about an incident (Indvik and Johnson, 2009; Minkler and Miceli, 2004).

In the workplace, employees may take an active approach in presenting themselves in certain way in order to influence the perception or impressions that other colleagues may have of them (Carlson, 2012; Schlenker and Pontari, 2000). By miscommunicating information about themselves, or misrepresenting their *actual* selves, it is possible for the employee to manage their *impression* in the workplace, to their own benefit (Impression Management), thus portraying a false representation of themselves on a target, or victim, possibly a superior or manager who has something that the false impressionist can benefit from (Burgoon et al., 1996), notably similar to the acts of inmates in an institution who are eager not to be compromised or punished for not acting appropriately (Goffman, 1961). Whilst impression management has a high sense of deceit to it, Carlson (2012) identifies that it is possible for one to manage the

impression a superior has through utter honesty, for example: “a subordinate who has failed to complete an assigned task might work to manage the impressions of their supervisor by…truthfully explaining the difficulties encountered and affirming their willingness to redouble their efforts to catch up” (Carlson, 2012: p. 1), thus the supervisor may take the view that the employee has indeed done their best at the time, but has been honest and made them aware of a lack of productivity, but impresses the superior by promising a heightened level of work to complete ahead of another deadline (Carlson, 2012). In the same example however, one should also consider that the same employee may choose not to tell their superior of the initial broken deadline, or simply blame the effort, of lack thereof, exerted by a (faultless) co-worker to cover their own misgivings (Carlson, 2012).

In order for the liar to deliver what they feel is the correct impression, it is important that they understand one of three elements indicated by their target (i) how the target tried to deliver their understanding of the impression (given directly), (ii) the targets actual conveyance of the perceived impression of the employee, and (iii) how the deceiver interpreted the targets conveyance (what they draw from what the target said about them) (DePaulo and Bell, 1996). Thus, the deception or impression management of an employee may actually stem from the behaviour of their employer or superior in the first instance, ensuring that the employee continues their role of deception toward the superior in order to change the way they think, or the way they see that person in the workplace (DePaulo and Bell, 1996; Larson, 1989). The feedback given by the superior, and how it is delivered, offers the possibility of reducing, if not removing, the opportunities for employees to deceive others by impression management (Blumberg, 1972; Larson, 1989).

2.4.8 *Employee Theft*

Employee theft is a problem for all organisations, affecting not only profit margins but also trust, commitment and loyalty between employers and employees alike (Moorthy et al., 2010) and, whilst it is often demonstrated by news of large scale plans and embezzlement, it is often the vast amount of smaller, almost unnoticed incidents that add up and create a much larger problem for organisations throughout the world (Bolin and Heatherly, 2001; Grover, 1993).

Theft in the workplace refers to a range of incidents by employees at all levels and its extent will vary with the type of employee committing the crime (front line worker, supervisor, or management) (Moorthy et al., 2010). Whilst retail theft is more likely to be committed by a front line shop worker, or product handling store room assistant, stationery theft may be considered to be more appropriate and probable of an administrator or office worker (Bailey, 2006). Similarly, in restaurants, waiting staff are capable of stealing gratuities ("tips") from tables and bar tops, restaurant supervisors are able to apply discounts once cash bills have been paid, enabling them to "pocket" the rest, and chefs can simply walk out the back door with a bag of food (Hawkins, 1984). In addition to tangible theft, one must also consider the opportunities for travelling staff to embellish expenses claims, using inflated mileages for fuel repayment, or perhaps including meals which should not be claimed for (McGee and Byington, 2008). Time can also be stolen from the employer by taking longer lunch breaks, additional coffee or cigarette breaks, and not to forget those who are always running late to start work, or seem always to slip out early at the end of the day, or "work from home" (Coyne and Bartram, 2006).

The sources of motivation to steal from work are as varied as the methods to commit the crime. Employee needs, skills, and attitudes toward crime are related to the probability that they will actually steal from their employer (Murphy, 1993). Whilst some employees steal for the fun and thrill of getting away with it (Latham, 2006), others may take in order to give to other colleagues, either due to bullying or the adoption of a steal from the rich, give to the poor, Robin Hood attitude to assist others (Osland, 1997). Theft has been linked to commitment, showing a higher propensity to steal from those who have fewer stakes or are less committed to their employer (Frazee, 1996; Sims, 2002).

2.5 Contemporary Review of Theory: Spirituality & FLOW

2.5.1 *Spirituality*

Often mistaken for religious behaviour in the workplace (Groen, 2001; Renesch and DeFoore, 1996), Spirituality refers to much more; a deeper meaning for leadership styles (Briskin, 1998), and embracing what really matters to employees and the organisation, in order for development and improvement (Briskin, 1998). It has been shown that spirituality began to leave the home and emerge in workplaces following the greed of the 1980's where there was the ability to earn vast sums of money, with a

diminishing effect on personal values (McLaughlin, 2005). Workplace spirituality has emerged as a full connection of the employee with their organisations core values (Milliman et al., 2003; Mitroff and Denton, 1999a). Milliman et al (2003) use a simple model to conceptualise workplace spirituality, defining it at individual, work group, and organisational level (figure 2.2):

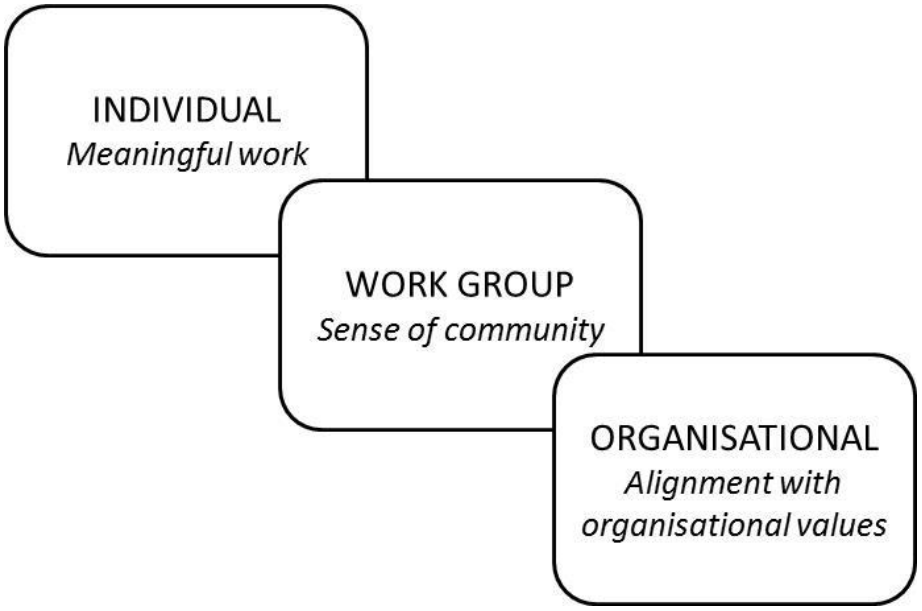

Figure 2.1: Spirituality Model
(adapted from Milliman et al., 2003)

Individual spirituality develops when a person searches for meaningful work that gives one a deep feeling of purpose in the work that is chosen to complete (Chalofsky, 2003; Milliman et al., 2003). Motivation to work is found within and is represented by how the employee or organisational member interacts with daily tasks, portrayed by completing activities which give further meaning to not only their own life, but of the lives of those around them (Ashmos and Duchon, 2000; Milliman et al., 2003) in order to build a sense of community and realisation of dignity in one's own work and how that impacts others in both the workplace and home life (Wheatly, 1994). The idea of community, is a critical dimension of spirituality in the workplace which is defined by the relationships fostered amongst colleagues and occurs at group level (Maynard, 1992) and requires group members to acknowledge and believe that there is a relationship between the inner-self of both themselves, and the other group members (Freshman, 1999; Milliman et al., 2003), and recognises that fulfilment also requires the integration of family into the organisation and its activities, by means of social

gatherings, occasions, and arranged family days (by the company or organisation) (Freiberg and Freiberg, 1996; Garcia-Zamor, 2003; Milliman et al., 2003).

At an organisational level, spirituality is identified with the alignment of personal values (of staff/employees/members) and the vision or purpose of the organisation itself (Dehler and Welsh, 1994; Milliman et al., 2003). The infusion of individuals work based actions, with the purpose of the organisation poses that the aligned interactions and the subsequent actions of individuals concern the overall contribution of a greater good, as opposed to just individual gain (Ashmos and Duchon, 2000), and that working in alignment shows that the individual is willing and able to live and work with a sense of inner truth in an environment which shows integrity, acts for the benefit of others, conscience, and seeks for more than just profit maximisation (Branson, 2008; Hawley, 1993).

Unlike motivation which can be enhanced or encouraged, spirituality (and spiritual well-being) is intrinsic and must be fully embraced to not only see its dimensions, but to appreciate its successes (Cohen et al., 1997; Groen, 2001; Idler et al., 2003; Oxman et al., 1995). Organisations which are spiritually aligned with their staff, stand to reap the benefits shown through a passion for work, a culture of creativity, and risk taking (Krishnakumar and Neck, 2002). Those workplaces which offer a balance between work/life cultures (Groen, 2001), and investment in staff stand to grow their productivity through commitment and retention due to similar values and beliefs as their people (Groen, 2007). The spiritually infused organisation also has within a sense of community, not only internally, but externally through the mediation of appropriate social events, and care amongst employees fostered by friendship and respect for others (Wong and San Hu, 2011). By having aligned values between the people and organisation, the drive to succeed is assisted by the desire of the operating staff to be part of the processes and tasks required to complete business on a day-to-day, and long-term basis (Pfeffer, 2010a). Aligned organisations are able to engage not only the minds, but the hearts of their people, drawing from this relationship commitment and value-based relationships toward work groups and tasks (Pfeffer, 2010a; Saks, 2011).

True workplace spirituality must offer the employee a community to work in which is supportive and caring, offering deep connections with other members of the workgroup or organisation (Saks, 2011), and having an connectable identity with the universe itself

(Ashmos and Duchon, 2000). "Interconnectedness" defines this state of deep and full connection with all aspects of the person's life, what they do, and the people that they do it with (Mitroff and Denton, 1999b). This sense of belonging and desire to belong is what creates the substance of spirit in the workplace and enables it to grow and develop, from commitment to one and other, both from a person-to-person, and person-to-organisation perspective (Milliman et al., 2003; Saks, 2011).

So many people today are told to leave their attitudes or problems at the door when they come to work, paste on a smile, and be happy and friendly (Callaghan and Thompson, 2002), however for a true professional, with passion and desire for what they do at work, personal indulgence is not always a factor that can be switched on and off to suit the organisation, which would not occur, or be a requirement for a spiritually infused workplace (Baldwin and Sadd, 2006). Garcia-Zamor (2003) defines that spirituality acknowledges that people come to work with more than physical attributes. One does not simply enter the premises as a body and mind; one enters as an individual, capable of thoughts, creativity, and emotions. Now there is a shift organisations which are more explorative and accepting in their need for spirituality and what it brings (trust, harmony, personal values), as a means to create power through integrity to increase productivity and achieve goals (Gotsis and Kortezi, 2008; Leigh, 1997). By changing corporate culture to one that acknowledges and accepts the fulfilment of spiritual needs, and one which understands the connection and importance of its operations provision externally (i.e. serving humanity and protecting the planet), the organisation is able to prosper (Garcia-Zamor, 2003).

Idler et al. (2003) introduced the measure of spirituality in industrial settings with their research. Previous works have found inadequacy in spiritual research, whereby the theory has become confused with that purely of religion (Hilton, et al., 2002; Koenig, et al., 1998a; Koenig et al., 1998b). This newer approach used both constructs in order to gather data, and measure the difference in attitude not only between the constructs, but also how spirituality is linked separately with social culture and the integrated cultures around oneself. This study has been used during the questionnaire creation due to its discrimination of spirituality, and the factors affecting people in a commercial setting when value and belief systems are being evaluated.

2.5.2 *Engagement and Spirituality at Work*

A number of descriptions have been offered to define engagement in the workplace (Saks, 2011), all of which point toward employees harnessing themselves in their work roles within which they are able to express themselves on a number of levels during work tasks (Kahn, 1990). Saks (1990) explains how employees become engaged when they are able to utilise their mind, body and soul when completing their roles within the organisation (Rich et al., 2010) and enables psychological commitment through their attention, connectivity and integration from the job role (Kahn, 1990). Characterised by "vigour, dedication, and absorption" (Schaufeli et al., 2002: p. 74), engagement is "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind" (Saks, 2011; Schaufeli et al., 2002). This refers to engagement as being a sign of high levels of energy being exerted from the individual in their work role, during which the person is highly involved in their work which must be significant to them in order for enthusiasm for tasks to be evident, and the role receives their full concentration (Saks, 2011).

People who are engaged and immersed in their work are likely to feel that time is not an issue as their enthusiasm and engrossment in the role ensures that the day passes quickly (Bakker, 2008; Bakker and Demerouti, 2008). Engagement can be distinguished from other positive constructs (such as involvement, satisfaction, and commitment) (Newman and Harrison, 2008; Saks, 2011) by the requirement of holistic infusion of self in the work role and workplace itself (Rich et al., 2010; Saks, 2011). Whilst engagement is a concept of motivation, it is multi-dimensional as opposed to relating to singular aspects of the persons construct, requiring personal energy and emotional fulfilment, which results in connectedness, integration and focus on work performance, and a growing sense of community in the workplace setting (Rich et al., 2010).

Combining the two concepts of spirituality and engagement suggests a state of completeness and wholeness (Saks, 2011). With the investment of all intrinsic aspects of an individual (emotional, physical, and cognitive) in the performance of a role, full engagement in work completes the senses of both completeness and wholeness for a truly spiritual person operating within an aligned experience or organisation (Kahn, 1990; Saks, 2011). The holistic investment that is required from spiritual engagement further defines spiritual engagement as differing from traditional motivators (Rich et al., 2010). Employees attachment to work is important to organisations performance for both the short- and long-term and requires the consideration of not only sociological,

but also psychological belief, and the interaction that the individual has with their work (Mauno et al., 2007; Word, 2012).

Organisations that exhibit spirituality deliver an environment where both personal and professional lives are infused, allowing individuals to express themselves as a whole in the workplace environment; with authenticity (Jurkiewicz and Giacalone, 2004; Saks, 2011). By engaging *authenticity*, organisations permit workers to be themselves all of the time; the home-self is ergo the work-self, allowing staff to speak the truth, thus enabling an environment of truth, integrity, and ultimately trust (Kinjerski and Skrypnek, 2004). Full engagement requires that the individual displays full characteristics of themselves in their work role and throughout the workplace, where they are coupled with the tasks required of them and with the organisation itself (Kahn, 1990; Saks, 2011). When fully engaged, the individual maintains their true identity at work, and does not alter their persona when conducting themselves in business, or interactions in the workplace (Kahn, 1990).

Furthermore, the feeling of connection is a key component of spirituality and employee engagement, again where the individual is not only completely attached to the work and workplace, but also those with whom they interact with through the course of their working life's journey, both internal and external to the organisation (Krishnakumar and Neck, 2002; Milliman et al., 2003). Emotional engagement and the feeling of being connected to something more than oneself (Kinjerski and Skrypnek, 2004) is also a key theme defining spiritual engagement at work, by means of trusting and supported personal relationships (Kahn, 1990). Work related outcomes are also linked to spiritual engagement at work, such as evidence that individuals are able to attain creativity, trust, personal fulfilment, commitment and honesty through aligned experience (Krishnakumar and Neck, 2002; Saks, 2011). In addition to this, Milliman et al. (2003) has linked three workplace spirituality dimensions with the earlier five factors model, compounded by Krishnakumar and Neck (2002) who identified that a lack of organisational spirituality is likely to result in higher outcomes of negative workplace behaviour, such as absenteeism, staff turnover, and work-related stress or depression (Saks, 2011). It is oppositely shown though that those who are spiritually engaged at work are more creative, productive, and willing to over-perform as they are not only connected to the work that they do, but feel free to do so (Bakker, 2008; Bakker and Demerouti, 2008).

Kahn (1990) identified that engagement can be defined as three separate psychological conditions, in order to measure the degree of their engagement at work (Saks, 2011). *Psychological Meaningfulness* encompasses the amount of meaning that people are able to take from work and their perceived return on investment (by themselves to the organisation) throughout their work performance. Meaningfulness at work is, therefore, how worthwhile they are made to feel following engaging in their role tasks, and how valuable the organisation makes them feel to the operations of the business (Kahn, 1990; Saks, 2011). Next, *psychological safety* refers to how "safe" the employee, or individual, feel to truly express themselves within their role, without fear of discrimination or negative repercussion from the organisation, to their status, or to the self-image (Carmeli et al., 2009; Kahn, 1990). Finally, *psychological availability* concerns the self-belief that the individual is able to offer the suitable physical, cognitive, and emotional resources required fully in the role performance and completion of tasks (Haugen and Davis, 2009; Kahn, 1990).

2.5.3 Spiritual Struggle

Whilst many organisations acknowledge the importance of spiritual alignment with employees, to promote engagement in work roles and the business itself, many often consider the subject taboo (Exline and Bright, 2011; Sense and Fernando, 2010). Whilst spirituality is understood as a separate construct from religion, many organisations still relate the two practices as one, and wish to segregate the principles of "church" or religion, from the operations of their business or work (Exline and Bright, 2011) to reduce perhaps political obligations or implications, or to simplify business decisions making by disposing of heightened moral aspirations or suggestion (Wald, 2009; Whetten, 2004). However, those leaders who do choose to opt for a moral standing point, make change and decisions for legitimacy as opposed to profitable reasons (Exline and Bright, 2011; Tourish and Pinnington, 2002).

As many individuals inadvertently relate their work experiences to their own religious and spiritual beliefs, it is natural for them to also portray their beliefs (whether religious or spiritual) within the work role (Exline and Bright, 2011) which can be appreciated as integration or infusion (Ashmos and Duchon, 2000). This, in turn, has shown to be associated with the tendency to increase not only standards of work through

connectedness with the (aligned) organisation, but, also increase the expectations of the operations and beliefs within the workplace and co-workers alike (Bunderson and Thompson, 2009). However, this expectancy may face struggle itself when spiritual workplace behaviour or beliefs are questioned by the organisation (Exline and Bright, 2011; Schaeffer and Mattis, 2012). Struggles of spirituality can arise for a number of reasons in the workplace. The extent of which individuals should be encouraged to express their spirituality may be questioned by leaders or managers as whilst some people may openly encourage the creativity and relationship fostering that comes with true spirituality, others may be intimidated, or merely disinterested (Exline and Bright, 2011). Some individuals may have current or previous experience of being discriminate about how open they are with their connection to work, and become intimated and withdrawn from the organisation – since they are not able to fully immerse or infuse the home and work life relationship that is evident in truly aligned and spiritual encounters (Bodla et al., 2013; Lynn et al., 2013). The level of individual spirituality may be disparate to others within the organisation, or differ from that of the organisation itself, resulting in a feeling of isolation and diminished bonds with workmates, or similarly experienced through a lack of interest in spiritual relationships from others who simply attend work to do a job without meaning (Cavanagh and Bandsuch, 2002; Lips-Wiersma et al., 2009).

Organisations also have the ability to control and use employees to the benefit of itself and its goals, as and when they see fit (Cavanagh and Bandsuch, 2002; Exline and Bright, 2011). To this extent, it is possible that the organisation may use its power over individuals and deploy them as required to achieve task completion and goal satisfaction where required, perhaps exploiting individual spirituality to meet their own ends (Ashforth and Vaidyanath, 2002; Cavanagh and Bandsuch, 2002) which can affect the individuals response to workplace commitments and intrinsic thinking (Exline and Bright, 2011; Pava, 2003). Whilst not all reactions are oriented to the personal comfort achieved through spirituality, they may be what consumes a person to seek greater good and change in the organisation for which they work, acknowledging the morality of both practices and goals which the organisation seeks to attain, again enabling the individual to decide whether this is the correct workplace for them, and to identify if the business and structure are truly aligned (Bell, 2008; Exline and Bright, 2011).

For even the truly aligned organisation, it is impossible to exert control over individuals interpersonal values and beliefs (Bell, 2008; Exline and Bright, 2011). In an equal and aligned environment, it is more likely that the participants in the workplace will grow and further develop their spiritual beliefs and values, further connecting with the organisation and work-based relationships (Lips-Wiersma et al., 2009). However, individuals internally associate their own spirituality and connections with other beliefs and values that are intrinsic only to them, resulting again in disparity amongst each other, which can result in conflict, debates or personal arguments with typically negative results and broken bonds (Pava, 2003; Polley et al., 2005). Leaders in the organisation may take steps to avoid these types of disagreements by setting tolerance policy, promotion of spirituality from individuals which is not in line with company policy, attempt to create unity, or even discourage concentrated efforts form individuals who seek to push forward their own beliefs and value systems which may then have influence over others, misguiding them and causing following as opposed to individual thinking (Groß, 2009; McGhee and Grant, 2008).

Where the actions of the employer are morally questionable, struggle can occur when the employee does not wish, (or feels unable), to complete a role that they feel is wrong. Clashes can then occur and obedience to authority of leaders becomes difficult (Phipps, 2012). By following orders, or carrying out a task which does not seem ethical, honest, or "right", to a spiritual employee, they will experience conflict related to the organisations polices and goals, resulting in a possible loss of true identity and all that the individual feels appropriate (cognitive dissonance) (Exline and Bright, 2011; Festinger, 1962). Also, with further exposure to others in the workplace, through growth, restructure, new additions and leavers, individuals can experience shifting beliefs and perhaps doubt over their own spirituality (and that of others) (Altemeyer and Hunsberger, 1997). Whilst this can be valued and rewarding to some as they value the experience of doubt or questioning beliefs, many people find it unsettling and disturbing to have to ponder their belief or value-systems (Krause and Ellison, 2009). Furthermore, with changing teams and colleagues, it is possible that as opposed to finding connections with others, individuals become disconnected within the environment in which they work, making it difficult to find meaningful bonds with others and causing question to their value within the organisation (Exline and Bright, 2011).

Spirituality in this study draws together the concept of Goffman's Presentation of Self, with motivation and the desire to enter the workplace again and again. Whilst many staff may think that they return to work every day, or for the next shift, purely to support financial needs, they may actually engage in their work practices due to the beliefs or values they have embedded in them. A true desire to serve customers exists in some people; alignment of self-beliefs and values also exists in some members of staff. Different levels of staff may strive to engage at higher levels of their organisation due to their desire to be promoted to the next level in the company for the benefits and recognition of what the job title means to them and others in their social group. However, other people positions within the organisation may feel that their embedded workplace spirituality may find alignment in what they do. Waiting staff may truly believe that they enjoy what their job means; they have a need to help and engage with customers, through the way in which they serve them in line with the company standards. Supervisors may also feel that the temporary management of waiting or bar staff helps to promote what the company stands for. The manager, him or herself, who experiences spirituality has the need to drive their teams forward through placing value on what the company stands for (the company values and beliefs) and has the need to ensure that staff engage in the same framework.

2.5.4 *Flow: The Secret to Happiness*

Csikszentmihalyi (1997, p46.) begins by taking us on a journey of the mind: "…you are skiing down a slope and your full attention is focused on the movements of your body, the position of the skis, the air whistling past your face, and the snow-shrouded trees running by". Csikszentmihalyi first identified a concept which would later become known as Flow when he saw how people, such as painters, became so entirely immersed in their work that they would start to shut off everything else around them, including a need to eat or sleep. His use of the skiing analogy aids to demonstrate the concentrated, yet somewhat natural, fully immersed engagement that an individual can achieve from certain experiences (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997).

Stemming from intrinsic motivation theory, and a concept of positive organisational practice, "Flow" is a feeling of fulfilment and play, and engagement in autotelic experience by workers who operate with complete involvement, immersing themselves in the task and workplace completely (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975; Deci and Ryan, 2000; Fullagar and Kelloway, 2009). Those experiencing Flow engage intensely in their role

at work, work at full capacity, and seem-less effort that is cognitive through the matching of workplace tasks and personal skills (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975; Fullagar and Kelloway, 2009; Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi, 2002).

For an individual to achieve a Flow state of mind, it is important that the event has a set of goals which can be worked toward, and are definitely achievable (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997; Deci and Ryan, 2000). It is essential that a balance is met to ensure that the skill required during the completion of tasks in the experience is met. If a task is too easy, then the participant is likely to become bored and lack the desire to engage, or even complete. And, if the task is deemed too difficult, the risk is then that the individual becomes frustrated, disengaged, and walks away, abandoning the project with resultant anxiety (Deci and Ryan, 1980).

Conditions for Flow

Flow can be experienced during any activity however the precursor is that it is most likely to occur when an individual is fully engaged in a task with intrinsic benefits or meaning. Csikszentmihalyi's Flow Theory dictates three conditions which should be met for a person to experience the flow state (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975, 1990, 1997). First, the activity being approached must have a clear set of goals so that the individual can identify progress being made when carrying out what must be done, adding structure to the process of completion. Secondly, the task has to offer a form of immediate feedback so that the person engaging in it can understand their progress, and prepare for any changes required to their performance. Finally, the individual must experience a balance between the challenge presented by the task, and their own skillset in order to have confidence in oneself that it is indeed possible to meet each goal, and complete the overall activity (Carpentier et al., 2012; Ellis et al., 1994; Jackson, 1996; Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi, 2002).

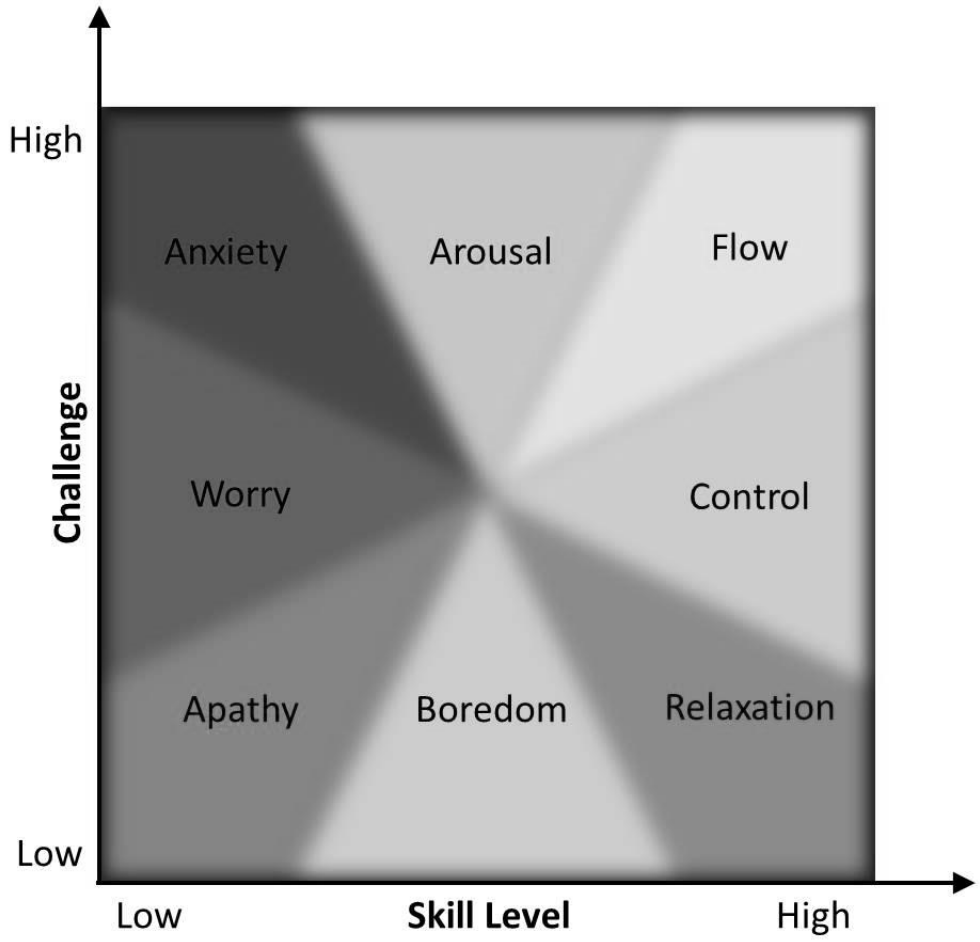

Figure 2.2: Flow Model
(adapted from Csikszentmihalyi, 1997)

Csikszentmihalyi (1997) created the above diagram (figure 2.3) which identifies relationships between the challenge presented by the activity, and an individual's perceived skillset. It also shows a further dimension of flow, which suggests that full immersion and experiential flow is more likely to be achieved when the challenger presented by the activity is higher than average, and the individual has a higher than average skillset (the upper-right area of the chart). As point of reference, the centre point of the chart, states the average level of experience, with the further away areas demonstrating a more intense state in each category of feeling (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975, 1997).

Moneta (2012), and Keller and Landhäußer (2012), identified possible constraints within Csikszentmihalyi's Flow Model, suggesting that it does not offer the central precondition for flow, which is the balance of challenge and skills. For example, those individuals who have a naturally lower than average skillset and high level of challenge

(or vice versa), do not inevitably fit within the scales of the model when they demonstrate skills or challenge which are again higher than their personal average (Ellis et al., 1994).

Characteristics of Flow

Whilst the initial work of Csikszentmihalyi (1975) shows the main characteristics of Flow to be a balance of skills (personal) and challenge (task-related), more additionally, research has identified additional constructs that are prominent (Fullagar and Kelloway, 2009; Jackson and Marsh, 1996).

The first feature refers to the original concept "challenge-skill balance" which identifies that for completion to be successful, one must experience a match between the challenge faced within work operations, and skill ability (Fullagar and Kelloway, 2009). Should the participant experience a challenge that is out with their skillset, it is likely that frustration at the task will be the outcome and, vice-versa, should the task be beneath their skill level, they will experience boredom (Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi, 2002). For those who experience a match, but task complexity is beneath a certain level, it is likely that apathy will be displayed (Fullagar and Kelloway, 2009; Jackson and Marsh, 1996).

Next, the construct of "merging action and awareness" prompts automatic response from the participant as task completion become integral to one's skillset (Chen, 2007; Quinn, 2005). The third construct is that of "clarity of goals" whereby staff are fully aware of what they are aiming to achieve by completing tasks which are aligned with the organisations mission or goal statements (Fullagar and Kelloway, 2009; Lehman et al., 2002). Fourth, the recipient receives direct "unambiguous feedback" from the task itself, allowing the individual to understand how well they are performing (Vlachopoulos et al., 2000).

Concentration of the task at hand sees the participant's total focus on the activity that they are completing, their total concentration ensures a lack of distraction (Jackson and Marsh, 1996). "Paradox control" occurs when the individual exercises control over a situation without the feeling of trying, or having, to be in control (Fullagar and Kelloway, 2009; Jackson, 1996; Jackson and Marsh, 1996). This has also been

described as a state of mind that occurs leaving one with the feeling of being able to accomplish anything (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975; Deci and Ryan, 2000).

Next, a loss of self-consciousness occurs when self-concern dissipates when the individual experiences Flow and they become immersed in the activity, and a natural performer of the task: sports-people, musicians, or that of individuals experiencing workplace spirituality (Fullagar and Kelloway, 2009; Jackson and Marsh, 1996). The eighth dimension of Flow is "transformation of time". During this experience, the individual has an altered perspective of time. Through immersion in tasks, the Flow-experiencer either feels that time slows down (normally in an intense situation) or passes more quickly than in reality (through enjoyment or focus of the task at hand) (Fullagar and Kelloway, 2009; Kowal and Fortier, 1999).

The final additional dimension identified, "autotelic experience", leaves the individual wholly satisfied having completed a task which was enjoyed, or where completion "leaves you on a high" (Jackson and Marsh, 1996: p. 20), and is said to be the ultimate result of a person being in "Flow" (Chen et al., 2000).

Autotelic Personality

Lopez and Snyder (2007) discuss Csikszentmihalyi's hypothesis whereby he suggests that individuals demonstrating specific traits are more likely to be able to achieve a state of flow when compared to the average person. Csikszentmihalyi suggests that personality traits including curiousness, persistent behaviour, low levels of selfishness, and a high rate of achievement (intrinsic benefits) are all identified as important in those who will experience flow in activities more often. People displaying these streaks are described as having "autotelic personality" (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975, 1990, 2000)

The term "autotelic" is historically of Greek origin, with its roots in two works: auto, for *self*, and telos, for *goal*. When considering flow theory, autotelic refers to a person as one who goes out to complete tasks for their own sake, as opposed to achieving a goal which has extrinsic meaning or benefit (Asakawa, 2004; Csikszentmihalyi and LeFevre, 1989). Thus, an individual who has an autotelic personality will have the tendency to realise intrinsic qualities of motivation and flow in their everyday activities. Whilst autotelic personality is one of the main constructs of flow and central to the theory, it has received little empirical research (Asakawa, 2004; Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi,

2002). However, one of few studies has shown that autotelic individuals encounter more positive everyday experiences than non-autotelic people, meaning that they are more likely to experience flow, and fulfilment from activities in which they engage, and are less likely to experience stress and tension within a situation where they experience flow (Asakawa, 2004).

There is also debate over whether autotelic is a transitory state of mind which can flit in and out of one's psyche depending on the activity, or if it is a personality trait, whereby people who have an autotelic personality are more open to experiencing flow if the circumstance, i.e. balance of challenge versus skillset, is correct in any given situation (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975; Fullagar and Kelloway, 2009). A method of measuring autotelic personality is by using the Five-Factor Model (FFM) (Costa and McCrae, 2008; Ross and Keiser, 2014). The FFM is discussed further in Chapter 2 under the heading "Job Satisfaction and Career Choice". Time spent in a state of flow is traditionally used as a measurement, however it is to be noted that as the length of time extends, there are more and more possible opportunities for additional flow inducing incidents to occur (Hektner and Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi, 2002).

In their study of job satisfaction Williams and Anderson (1991) study the social behaviour of employees, in relation to their job satisfaction. The paper identifies presentation of self in the workplace, the dramaturgical efforts of employees in roles within an organisation, and the extent to which behaviour is related to intrinsic values of the employee. This study has been included in this study's the questionnaire in order to assess how people interact in the workplace, which demonstrates commitment to their organisation. These behaviours also point toward deviant traits, but in line with workplace spiritual beliefs and values, and Goffman's dramaturgy theories (Williams & Anderson, 1999; Goffman, 2005).

Flow at Work

The previously discussed conditions of flow, identifying the match of advanced challenge and skills, are of importance when the theory is to be actualised in practice (Fullagar and Kelloway, 2009). Due to flows relationship with goal or objective achievement, it should be considered in the workplace due to the potential impact on

ultimate workplace satisfaction through commitment to complete assigned tasks (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975).

There are a number of interventions that have been suggested which can enhance, or increase, the achievement of flow in the workplace. Such mediations have been identified as causing intrinsic reward and recognition, which additionally provide benefits to the individual (Hektner and Csikszentmihalyi, 1996). As the individual is thus self-motivated to not only achieve tasks through goal completion but, from the very nature of flow, to push forward and achieve greater things. Csikszentmihalyi emphasised that there are activities (and environments) which are more likely to cause flow to occur in individuals. This can create further benefits to those organisations that then able to match such with individuals who demonstrate behaviour, values, and belief systems which are in line with each other, to partly manipulate the occurrence of flow in the workplace (Ceja and Navarro, 2012). Not only does this help to advance the completion of activities within the organisation, but it should also create a sense of happiness and achievement, in turn improving morale within the work group. The organisation does have a commitment to its happy people, and should ensure that they meet three conditions (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Csikszentmihalyi and LeFevre, 1989; Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi, 2002); first, Goals must be clear and concise; second, there must be immediate feedback, and; finally, there should be a balance between opportunity and capacity.

It is suggested that as individuals increasingly experience flow in their work activities that people grow naturally towards the more advanced task and seek further meaning from more and more challenging tasks. With this comes a yearning for greater stimulation in the form of emotional, cognitive, and social engagement (Keller and Landhäußer, 2012). Whilst the workplace which benefits from the stimulation of flow achieving experiences, it may also find itself becoming increasingly complex to operate, and must itself work harder to create more challenging tasks and activities for the employees to continue enjoying their work. However, employees who truly enjoy their work and experience flow, will become so immersed in their roles that they tend to stop noticing time, and become carried away with the task at hand (Salanova et al., 2006).

Demerouti et al. (2001) identified job resources which offer additional aspects to the job and tasks at hand which become important and intrinsic to the flow experience at work.

They defined the job resources as anything which may be physical, psychological, social, or organisational that are functional in the process to achieving goals at work, can reduce the arduous aspects of the job, thus reducing the mental or physical cost inflicted on the worker, and something which aids stimulation of personal growth or development. These may include the social network and thereafter support from colleagues, feedback on performance, or perhaps coaching and training delivered by line managers (Salanova et al., 2006).

Job resources can be conceived as having motivational potential as they offer meaning to employees who are more susceptible to experiencing flow, due to the value they add to the process through either social or information support (Bakker et al., 2003; Salanova et al., 2006). The research work completed by Bakker et al. (2003) showed that job resource availability can encourage work engagement in tasks, thus increasing experiences of flow (Salanova et al., 2006). The benefit of making job resources of the above type available is that (more often than not) workers will foster commitment towards their organisation, and through their level of commitment are less likely to be absent, which inevitably increases productivity (Salanova et al., 2006). In addition to this, job resources can also be used as predictors of engagement in the workplace, which is also then predictive of organisational outcomes of task completion.

As flow is an individual state (or trait) of mind (perhaps, self-efficacy) it is also important in the workplace to consider the individuals "personal resources" (Salanova et al., 2006: p. 4) which are characteristic of oneself which and linked to personal levels of resilience. Personal resources generally related to an individual's identity with their competencies which can control and have impact upon their immediate environment (Hobfoll et al., 2003). Self-efficacy has also demonstrated its ability to act as a cushion in stressful experiences, reducing the effects of stress during encounters, and also related to intrinsic improvement including the individuals health, development, and also social integration (Bandura, 1997, 1999; Salanova et al., 2006).

Consequences of Flow

Csikszentmihalyi (1997) suggested that by increasing the opportunity to spend time in a flow state would make life a more happy experience for us, and lead to greater success. Flow experience is intended to be a positive feature in life and improve productivity (in the right time, space, activity, and frame of mind). The effect of flow is its creation of

intense enjoyment, and immersion in tasks which are aligned with our personal goals, values, and beliefs, and are challenging to our current skillset. The challenge, creating opportunities for self-development (in both work, and life) increases productivity and the desire to accomplish greater things in all aspects of life to which flow is realised. Of course, this hand in hand effect of positivity and flow attainment, are subject to the correct challenge being met (Hoffman and Novak, 2009; Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi, 2002).

The self-development and goal setting aspect to flow suggests a principle of growth: it creates maturity and skills development in individuals, but also enables organisations and social groups to increase their abilities and knowledge (Jackson et al., 2001). By aspiring to master the activity or task being tackled, one continues to seek greater challenges from life which, in itself, can also foster further feelings of efficacy and competence purely from the fact that a greater challenge has been set, and accomplished (Asakawa, 2004; Ceja and Navarro, 2012).

From the flow model, it can be seen that an individual's experience of flow can encourage them to set and achieve greater goals due to the exhilaration and enjoyment that can be derived from the mastery of skills and achievement of completing a new, or existing challenge (in the case of when failure has previously been experienced) (Fredrickson, 2001). The desire to triumph fuels the need to develop existing skills and aids future development, creating an upward spiral of talent, ability, efficiency, not to mention the effect that positive outcomes may have on those who benefit from the outcome; be it personal, social, or workplace related (Carpentier et al., 2012; Nielsen and Cleal, 2010). In addition, flow has often been related to commitment as the inherent need to achieve, becomes an intrinsic value or construct of our psyche. Thus, the need to achieve in order to appreciate positivity in our lives can essentially start to reduce the possibility of negative outcomes, and negative feelings (Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi, 2002).

To the end of the individual, some (more than others) will use intuition to understand the benefit achieved of the positive effect that flow has on their emotions, and appreciate the increase in psychological and physical well-being (Cohen et al., 1997; Groen, 2001; Idler et al., 2003; Oxman et al., 1995). This, in turn, can cause further drive and determination to achieve future goals of more and more advanced difficulty,

presenting the more challenging event or task, to the newly developed skillset (Fredrickson, 2001). When faced with challenge, and in the instance of initial defeat or failure, certain individuals are more likely to bounce back and make their next attempt a success. Resilience is a varied trait and differs in each and every one of us, however it is also very likely to be representative in the challenges that approach and one aims to achieve, with some normal outlying exceptions being the exception and not the norm: extreme personalities exist, with extreme approaches to life and the challenges tackled (Beck, 2000).

Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment can be defined as individual identification within a particular organisation, normally that persons place of work (Porter et al., 1979), or place of other interest (church, school, involvement in charitable organisation, etc.). The commitment can be further categorised by three categorizing factors:

1. Belief and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values
2. Individual is willing to exert effort on behalf of the organisation
3. Individual has a desire to continue their involvement in the organisation (Porter et al., 1979)

Commitment, defined within the above classifications, has a strength beyond loyalty, it requires an active relationship between the individual and organisation, one that ensures that members are contribute not only in order to achieve goals, but to maintain and/or enhance its well-being through passion for the organisation (Wenger and Snyder, 2000).

Organisational commitment, though dependant on, differs from job satisfaction as an attitude, in so far as it is considered "global" and reflects affectionate response toward the organisation as a whole, as opposed to merely the task or job in question. Similarly, commitment refers to a feeling of attachment toward the overall organisation (including goals, aims and values), whereas job satisfaction also only concerns the performance area of specific tasks relevant to the persons job (Markovits et al., 2010; Porter et al., 1979).

This type of commitment is clearly psychological and one that draws from the individual's attitude toward their organisation. Organisational achievement is dependent on contribution and commitment from employees working toward aims and

overall survival (Rousseau, 2004). To this end, as with empowerment, it is important to have clear guidelines between each other of how the individual will perform and contribute within their role, thus creating the psychological contract (Bal et al., 2008; Restubog et al., 2009), which consists of promises made between both the employee and employer, or person and the organisation (if not a place of work) (Rousseau, 2004).

Conflicting with the motivational impact of satisfaction and commitment is the theory considered by Henne and Locke (1985) of "job dissatisfaction" which exists as a psychological state which works to the detriment of organisational performance and goal achievement (Henne and Locke, 1985). It is also possible that this may develop into apathy amongst individuals which will also hinder not only the efforts of the organisation to perform, but can breed amongst team mates and develop feelings of ill-content or malevolence, such as theft and bullying (Neider and Schriesheim, 2010), in extreme cases (Hrebiniak, 1974; Ilies et al., 2006; Wild and Birchall, 2011).

According to Judge, Heller and Mount (2002) individuals are all different, and their attitudes are all different, they also add that people are subject to certain traits (Judge et al., 2002). Psychological impairment, or heightened senses, can impact the means of motivation and feeling of desire or ability to achieve (Judge et al., 2002). Table 2.6 provides a description of personal traits and the relationship with job satisfaction.

Table 2.6: Big Five Traits Relationship to Job Satisfaction

Personal Trait	**Description of Relationship**
Neuroticism	Neurotic people naturally experience negative feelings toward events in life normally because they place themselves in situations that foster pessimism. Thus, situations occur that lead to lower levels of motivation and job satisfaction, therefore negative affectivity (Emmons et al., 1985; Magnus et al., 1993).
Extraversion	Extraverts are considered to experience a higher level of positive emotion and are found to have a heightened concentration of social engagement through a wide number of friends and social contacts. They are therefore more likely to find positive reward through interpersonal activity in the work place (Connolly and Viswesvaran, 2000; Costa and McCrae, 1980; Watson and Clark, 1997).
Openness to Experience	Influences individual to feelings of both good and bad which can muddy direct impact on reactions experienced. Meaning that well-being or notion of job satisfaction can be unclear as the individual is open to the experience as opposed to looking for completion or gratification (DeNeve and Cooper,

	1998; McCrae, 1996).
Agreeableness	Related to happiness as those who are agreeable tend to experience increased motivation to achieve intimacy from relationships and life in general. Assuming that this also applies to job satisfaction, this makes getting along with others at work another motivator toward achieving satisfaction at work (McCrae and Costa, 1991; Organ and Lingl, 1995).
Conscientiousness	Conscientious workers relate to job satisfaction as this behaviour represents work-involvement which leads to achieving work direct (formal: incentives, salary, promotions; informal: recognition, respect, accomplishment) and indirect rewards (Organ and Lingl, 1995).

(adapted from Judge et al., 2002)

Whilst a sense of purpose is often found to play an important part in life itself and also within job satisfaction, it is not typically nurtured during career development (Kosine et al., 2008). Kosine et al. (2008) identify and present five factors (summarised in table 2.7) that are key to reinforcing career development which serve as a focus to identify ways in which one may recognise strengths that enable the meaningful development of purpose and a future career (Hill et al., 2010).

Before introducing the five key factors, it is important to understand "purpose". Purpose is an individual's relationship with the attainment of goals which are highly-valued to themselves and therefore the motivation required to achieve what each of us wants. By developing purpose, it enables personal motivation which in turn brings fulfilment, not only by achieving the original need (for Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, refer to Maslow, 1943), but also as a motivator to continue succeeding when one choses the next desired goal, or need (Steger, 2009).

Through existing research, it has been demonstrated that individuals with a heightened sense of both purpose and meaning can be subject to a higher feeling of happiness and a lesser likelihood of experiencing work-related psychological problems (Strauser et al., 2008). Whilst this seems to digress, it does reflect on their level of motivation and a healthier attitude to work, their ethics and level of motivation at work, and also the way in which they adjust to work situations, and ultimately the attitude that they exert on future career development (Ryff and Singer, 1998; Steger et al., 2006).

Table 2.7: Description of Five Factors

Factor	Descriptor
1. Identity Development	It has been identified, that those who have recognition of their career interests and are motivated to achieve or progress have a more robust sense of their own identity (Blustein et al., 1989; Grotevant, 1987), and in opposition of this, it is similarly found that those who may struggle with personal identity, will have a parallel converse sense of decision making and identity with their chosen career and its development (Cohen et al., 1995; Gordon, 1998).
2. Self-efficacy	Clement (1987) considers Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy and its proposal that expectations are a significant cause of both human behaviour and behavioural change (Bandura, 1977; Clement, 1987). Whilst this theory has been used in a number of situations requiring changes in behaviour, such as treatment of phobias and athletic performance (Lee, 1982), it has also been applied to vocational contexts and applied positively to career development (Barling and Beattie, 1983; Hackett and Betz, 1981; Lucas, 1997). Believing in oneself is extremely important to career exploration, choice, and future development. Self-efficacy is demonstrated by influencing individual career choice, performance during that career, and persistent motivation to achieve on an ongoing basis (Betz, 2004; Nauta et al., 2009), and is paramount to long-term goal achievement (Hackett and Betz, 1981).
3. Metacognition	Vital to individual thought process and is key to ones development of career choice (Kosine et al., 2008). By having an understanding and ability to regulate cognition of our abilities, it is possible to apply a strategy and take action from knowledge and feedback in order to make decisions in career development and future career planning (Batha and Carroll, 2007) through cognitive appraisal and task completion (Colombo et al., 2010; Jacobs and Paris, 1987). Research has shown that there is a substantial relationship between metacognition and career choice showing that individuals with high metacognitive ability demonstrate an equivalent level of vocational decision making ability (Symes, 1997). Similarly, those who display a lower level of metacognition, display a heightened sense of vocational indecision (Flansburg, 2011).
4. Culture	Cultural engagement, and its effect on our lives, occurs through whatever actions and activities one experiences throughout existence and has a bidirectional influence over career choice and culture itself, meaning that whatever shapes or moulds our attitude will habitually intertwine (Young et al., 2007). Culture therefore will shape not only careers, but will drive us into careers which encourage us to feel a meaning and thus purpose in life. Through purpose, individuals are then able to motivate ourselves, with the exception of other extrinsic and extrinsic factors (which will inevitably affect us emotionally) to achieve and perform

	throughout the chosen career path (Kosine et al., 2008; Lent and Brown, 1996). Our culture will invariably play a large part in personal decision making, including career choices, as personal values and other social or family influences are likely to affect the decision of career choice (Vigoda-Gadot and Grimland, 2008). From an early culture impacts our choices and consequently our lifestyle in the future with factors such as income abilities, mobility and location, lifestyle, and status, for example (Dorsey et al., 2003).
5. Service	From Damon et al.'s (2003) theory of purpose (Damon et al., 2003) and calling theory (see, for example Dik et al., 2008), it is suggested that service acknowledges the greatness of recognising how an individual's career choice can contribute not only to their family and social circle, but to society as a whole. This would also encompass the impact of how ones earnings and physical cash deposit can have effect out with our own personal domain by servicing the needs of others in society (Neal, 2000).

Taking a purpose-centred approach to career choice and development gives emphasis to the importance of how our career choice can be explored and a conscious decision made to follow a path that will enable us to use our earning potential and networks at work to give back, give to others, and enable others to develop fully as part of our own goal achievement (Kosine et al., 2008; Steger et al., 2010). By exploring different career choices, perhaps, for example, by taking part in job trials prior to engaging employment, or maybe having full and frank discussions with people already working in an area that is of interest to the potential employee, it is possible to reduce the factor of job-dissatisfaction, and the ability to be motivated to succeed in a chosen role, and increase motivation to perform and enable providing service back to others (Batac and Carassus, 2008; Kosine et al., 2008).

This approach to career choice and development helps to promote enhanced interpersonal skills, which in turn motivates the individual independently without influence from external sources (Singleton, 1989), such as incentives or other techniques used by managers as they have consciously chosen the direction they are taking in the career path and wish to succeed for psychological and sociological reasons (Kosine et al., 2008). However, it should be noted that an understanding of what motivates oneself and how one wishes to commit and engage in society must be acknowledged following an element of self-discovery, to be motivated to both perform highly and succeed in a chosen career that will enable positive outcomes and the ability to re-invest personally in society (Akos et al., 2004). For this to be true, the chosen

career must be one which fits an individual's personality and meets with their esteem needs and assumed purpose in life (Kosine et al., 2008).

Efficient organisations require a competent and effective style of management driven by leaders of a similar ilk. Whilst there are many factors which contribute to this, a successful practice of team building and motivating that team is key to positive operational performance (Pentland, 2012; Sulaiman et al., 2012). As a catalyst to business efficiency, team building is the main factor which assists the building of linear inter-organisational relationships (hierarchical between management and subordinates) (Collins and Clark, 2003). As relationships develop between employer and employee, the motivating factors used to encourage growth and bonds, and the manner in which they are delivered or communicated, have the power to breed either positive or negative behaviour with the subordinate teams (Buller, 1986; Sulaiman et al., 2012).

By promoting positive work practices, and enabling empowerment amongst work teams, the organisation is committed to employee self-management and productivity through empowered teams of staff, and a positive culture within it (Cooney, 2004). With clearly defined guidelines of both task and job role, employees are competent in their design and self-managed within their team role (Humphrey et al., 2007).

Work teams are considered as spokes of a hub, yielding efficient completion of goals that benefit of the organisation at the centre. Whilst teams are a whole, they do comprise individuals who observe not only the goings-on within their own group, but also that of other teams in the organisation with which their own cluster interacts with to complete greater goals that culminate in the business operations (Sharma et al., 2009). Though teams are created within the guidelines of the organisation, and designed for task completion and goal achievement, occasionally failure of the team will be experienced. Teams rely on the individuals within it to perform and be successful. Despite planning and designing, politics, confusion, even equipment or process failure, can play part in affecting employee attitudes, over which there may be little control (Shapiro and Kirkman, 1999), with the possibility of team breakdown or failure to commit and complete (Le Pine, 2003), with a resulting negative impact on motivation.

In order to demonstrate how the constructs discussed in the previous parts of the literature review relate with one and other, the following conceptual model was

developed (figure 2.4). This model is further developed later in the thesis, identifying where the hypotheses fit with the research model.

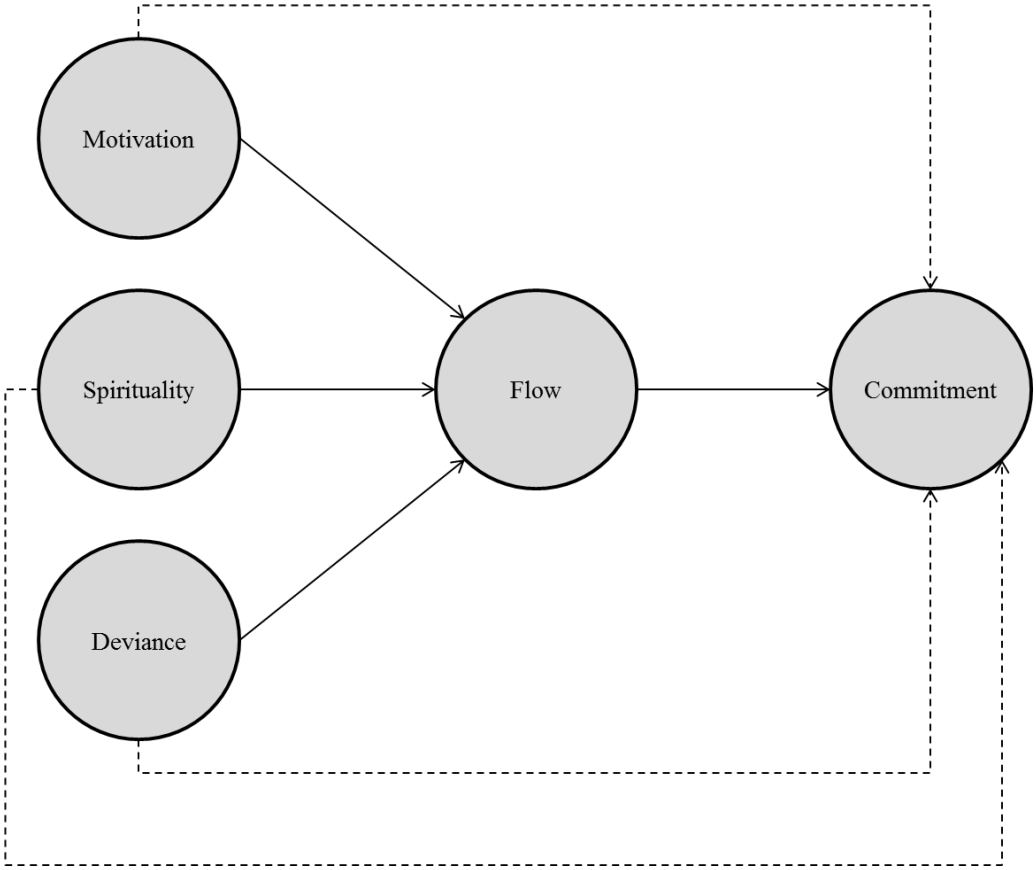

Figure 2.3: Conceptual Model

2.6 Context for Study: UK Branded Restaurant Industry

2.6.1 *Restaurants*

The restaurant industry makes up part of the worldwide food service industry, as an additional resource building the business of food preparation and process for retail consumption (MacLaren et al., 2013). Whilst some retailers may offer packaged "food to go", restaurants differ their service offering by the provision of specified areas in which consumers may dine during their food transaction, in a number of different styles of outlet including fast food, casual dining, and full-service fine dining premises (O'Mahony and Clark, 2013).

The European restaurant industry grown over many years, and since developed a style which has created successful commercial trading operations worldwide, with an estimated value of over £1500bn ("Global Restaurants Industry Profile," 2014). As operator numbers have grown, the industry is driven by competition and a combination

of either the price, level of service, or both. The twentieth century saw a shift from the main trade of extravagant cuisine to a more simple, affordable style of food and dining which has created a market of multiple outlets from a number of brands, creating identity and familiarity expected by customers, thus allowing the general population to have the ability to enjoy dining outside the home (Haley, 2011; Kiefer, 2002).

2.6.2 Ancient Hospitality

The concept of hospitality finds its roots in the ancient Rome when societies developed shelter in order to offer travellers an element of safety and security overnight (Durant, 1935, 1939; Heal, 1990; King, 1995; O'Gorman, 2009). As weary travellers were exposed to a number of perils such as murderous and other criminal behaviour, wild animals, and natures elements, hosts were bound to provide a hospitable shelter to protect their guests, or wards, for the length of stay (King, 1995). In addition to safety, many developed societies furthered their provision to include comfort and welcome, including the delivery of a meal and, indeed, in some instances this included the "attentions" of the hosts wife (King, 1995; White, 1970).

Historically travel was perceived as a penance and did not become associated with freedom until more recent times (King, 1998; Leed, 1991). However, it has also been identified that the first of our kind would use hospitable gestures and displays in order to become accepted into other groups of homo sapiens, noted as being desirable to join (O'Connor, 2005). Individuals external to the new group would offer a symbolic gesture in order to enter, and share company of others by sharing whatever food they had gathered for themselves (O'Connor, 2005; Tanaka and Hughes, 1980). Often, though, welfare and hospitality can be seen as polar opposites, with some societies finding normally hospitable occasions (such as meals) turning into violent situations, with fights over food and who it belongs to, and social acceptance thus turning to an individual's exclusion from the group (O'Connor, 2005; Selwyn, 1980).

Moving forward in time, Pompeii's archaeological investigation has given great insight to the early commercial hospitality industry (O'Gorman, 2009; O'Gorman et al., 2007). Similarly to our pre-historic cousins, Roman hospitality was borne from the offering of gifts to be shared between one individual and another. Through this act, the connection of hospitality, which was deemed to be hereditary from one group of peers to their future spawn, was created (O'Gorman et al., 2007). Commercial Roman hospitality was

more clearly defined in its nature and saw certain obligations grow between the host and their guest, or hospitable association. Travellers were received in the household and would enjoy courteous acts and consideration from their hosts. In addition, guests would receive duties of protection from their host and in extreme cases, representation in court (O'Gorman et al., 2007). Without formal agreement, hosts were honoured to provide for their travellers and were duty bound to receive notable guests, and found great accomplishment in receiving those from foreign climes (Davies and Shultz, 1998; O'Gorman et al., 2007), most often resulting in lasting friendships amongst individuals, groups, and families.

Culinary provisions and hospitality were very much combined and central to Roman life. Feasts would be held to recognise the gods and gave cultural importance to both consumption and indulgence as a way of life for ancient Romans (Gowers, 1993). As part of daily routine, meals nor only created a time to eat, but provided leisure time in which to socialise and interact with other people, enriching life and human relationships (Davies and Shultz, 1998; O'Gorman et al., 2007). As a centre for consumption, the Roman Empire imported and exported food and other gifts by agreement with its colonies for the aristocracy of the time (O'Gorman et al., 2007). Hospitality was seen as being important at the time with hostelries and other venues, including brothels, being noted places to indulge in leisure time (O'Gorman et al., 2007). Indeed, Roman barmaids and their equivalents often offered themselves for prostitution, in addition to their more seemly work behind the bar, or serving other customers who were there to enjoy and indulge in the less carnal of service provision (DeFelice, 2001).

The history of UK hospitality has been traced to the early modern times where hospitality practices were highly regarded, including their practices regularly being recognised by scholars and in religious sermons (Heal, 1990; O'Connor, 2005). Heal (1990) suggests five foundations governing hospitality in the UK over the past centuries:

1. The host and guest relationship is natural and indicative of social life
2. The host has regard for the safety of their guest and that the host appreciates status/honour in receiving the guest
3. Providing hospitality is deemed as being a noble act
4. Part of social life is the act of selfless giving toward the guest

5. The relationship experienced by offering hospitality is as important as other relationships formed

The integration of food cultures has become predominant in the understanding of historical global cultures. In previous times, food cultures have had a resounding integral relationship with a number of societal forces including slavery, immigration, trade patterns, and the import and export of commodities across the world (Assael, 2013). However, the food history literature is somewhat lacking in attention to the development of public eateries and the challenge of the restaurant as a vehicle to develop cultural and social practices (Assael, 2013; Kiefer, 2002; Spang, 2000).

The restaurant was born of other concepts in the historic hospitality industry. Whilst inns and taverns, etc., would make a living dominated by either alcohol or accommodation sales (Kiefer, 2002), they increased their income by commercially offering food as an add-on (Spang, 2000). More often business would comprise of regular, or repeat, patrons being hosted at long communal dining tables (a practice that has been seen re-introduced with restaurants such as Wagamama and Ichiban (Jarvis, 2011) in today's market with inner-city space-saving requirements), which as dark and uninviting places (Williams, 1991), could be intimidating to newcomers wishing to dine on the premises (Kiefer, 2002). Toward Edwardian and Victorian times and seeing the increase in population sizes, the restaurant industry also experienced (Assael, 2013; Kiefer, 2002). The increased demand for public dining was supplied, in London, with typically "English" establishments such as chop houses offering large cuts of hot and cold meat, along with ales and beers (Assael, 2013; Broomfield, 2007; Simmons, 1984).

Alongside such establishments which attracted great attention at the time (Assael, 2013), a number of more modest eateries served limited fare of foreign derision (Newnham-Davis, 1899). At these times, restaurants (as one may now understand them to be) were frequented, developed from coffee houses which would serve soups and light foods (Williams, 1991). Mainly operated by couples, the establishments would rarely be frequented by respectable women, who would only, if at all, dine outside the home once per week, the main body of custom therefore being made up of white collar male workers (Mac Con Iomaire, 2012, 2013; Williams, 1991).

The Victorian era saw changes within hospitality businesses across the world (Linderman, 2013; Mac Con Iomaire, 2012, 2013; O'Mahony and Clark, 2013) through the modernisation of public houses inns into modern hotels, following the growth of travellers, partly attributed to the finding of gold in some market economies (O'Mahony and Clark, 2013). Travellers were found to have heightened expectations, more so than could be met by traditional inns and licensed guest houses (MacLaren et al., 2013; O'Mahony, 2009). The commercial hospitality industry grew to provide dining experiences from chophouses and inns, to those which could match those of aristocratic homes in order to meet the needs of a very diverse society (Mac Con Iomaire, 2013; O'Gorman, 2010).

The birth of the restaurant is widely attributed to France during the late 1700's, where restaurants replaced the former eateries (Mac Con Iomaire, 2013; Spang, 2000), at which point people would have the choice of three options to dine outside the home (Glanville and Young, 2002): a basic establishment which would normally offer a single dish of the day, to purchase prepared food from a cook shop, or to accept an invitation from a sociable acquaintance (Mac Con Iomaire, 2013). The birth of the restaurant was defined by the industry operators of the time, where restaurateurs were described as having a trade which provided

> "…to the public an ever-ready feast, the dishes of which are served in separate portions, at fixed prices, at the request of each consumer. The establishment is called a restaurant, and the person in charge of it the restaurateur. The list of dishes, bearing the name and price of each, is called the carte or bill of fare, while the record of the dishes served to the customer, together with the relevant prices, is called the carte a` payer or bill" (Brillat-Savarin, 2004, p.267).

With the development of what one would acknowledge as being a commercial restaurant business, brought the combination of two business practices. The growth of public dining consumption linked commercial public food consumption with commercial food production (Mac Con Iomaire, 2013; Trubek, 2000). It also brought with it a change in licensing practices in London, namely "The Refreshment Houses and Wine Licences Act (1860)" as an attempt to bring together food and drink (McDonald, 1992) in order to encourage public sobriety (Mac Con Iomaire, 2013). Whilst previously wine licenses were only made available to those who already possessed a

spirits license, wine could now be sold through eating houses, in order to develop the promotion and sale of better quality alcoholic beverages: finer wines, and lower proof spirits (Mac Con Iomaire, 2013).

It is suggested that English Taverns were the closest business to what one would expect from a modern restaurant (Mennell, 1996), both as sociable and public dining facility. Taverns were different from ale houses of the time, in the manner that they purveyed more wines to beers or ales, and catered for a customer of higher social standing and were typically operated by men as opposed to the women of ale houses (Mac Con Iomaire, 2013). Traditionally a male oriented trade, Caesar Ritz aimed to shift the balance of trade by using the opening of London's Savoy Hotel to tempt female customers into public dining. This move was furthered in Dublin in the late 1800's with the creation of "ladies rooms" in restaurants (Mac Con Iomaire, 2013; Spang, 2000).

Following the spread of rail travel in the late 1800's, public dining and hotel accommodation became more available and more refined (Walker, 1991). Women were more comfortable with public dining and this was made further available with the development of independent restaurants, Viennese style confectionery-cafes, and department store tea rooms (Walker, 1991; Williams, 1991). By the First World War, dancing had been introduced to the dining experience at the Savoy, with orchestra's playing to encourage frivolity, and women of course being seen as essential to accompany their male partners to dine and then dance (Williams, 1991).

2.6.3 Restaurants and Rise of Market Economy

The commercial restaurant of today finds its roots in the hospitality provided by establishments which were little more than extensions of domestic households in the Edwardian and Victorian periods (Spang, 2000; Symons, 2013). Whilst individuals operated as traders and consumers, the households themselves were the actual vendors or customers trading cash for products or services in the market economy of the time (Gazeley, 1989; Majima, 2008). As these developed, there was a move from the typical family oriented structure of master or mistress, to the hosts appreciated by pubs and taverns (Symons, 2013). Many of the traditional household-style practices (early visits to market, bakeries and other producers) and set up (large kitchen, stores, dining and lounge rooms) remain in today's restaurants in some manner (Blake and Crewe, 1978;

Kotler, 1973), additionally the host (head of household) would regularly make checks on their guests (Symons, 2013).

As consumers, the view was one of entering an extended domestic situation where they would act normally as if in their own homes, with dining expectations which exceeded the provision found at home (Symons, 2013). It was in these places that social and cultural exchanges amongst fellow patrons and hosts happened, with needs being catered for, and experiences evaluated and enhanced, by their host: the Restaurateur (Hu and Ritchie, 1993; Naoi et al., 2006; Symons, 2013). It was from this era of public dining revolution that historic economists saw food start to circulate as part of the economy, it drew people from their homes and spread a different availability of food amongst different socio-economic cultures, and expanded the manner in which people socialised (Spang, 2000). The restaurant became a revolutionary tool which encouraged the distribution of trade by incorporating food production and supply networks with the public diner as a consumer, thus redistributing not only supplies, but also wealth through commercial growth by combining a number of organic industries with the business of public food and dining provision (Daviron and Ponte, 2005; Spang, 2000).

The market which developed was one of social welfare and not commercial self-interest (Smith, 1890, p11): the provision of supplies by bakers, butchers and suchlike, was less money-making for themselves, and more associated with the provision of food, and full bellies to the consumer (Smith, 1890; Symons, 2013). The restaurant industry is one which did, and still does, meet the needs of the consumer (food, combined with the need or desire to eat) using cash as a monetary route to move certain types of commodity around the market (Symons, 2013). It is still the case today that hospitality businesses open and begin to trade due to the operators love of what they do, which is similar to the needs of historic suppliers who provided food to meet the hungry needs of their customers (Lashley, 2008; Symons, 2013).

During the eighteenth century, the hospitality industry saw growth with the rise of the marketing economy. This notion was based on the movement of where hospitality existed. As more people were able to consume public dining, hospitality moved from the homes of aristocrats, to the businesses of the locale (Spang, 2000; Symons, 2013). The privileged few who offered hospitableness in their grand homes, saw the

development of a culture that was mainly offered in their homes, but has developed to now offer freedom to diners (Blom, 2005).

Traditionally large domestic houses would "offload" their excess production at market, not too far a concept from what is experienced in trade from restaurants today: money for food production (Brillat-Savarin, 2004; Symons, 2013). By defining the role of the restaurant (inn, or tavern) and creating individual meals, hospitality in public dining has promoted consumer choice, decisions, routes of trade, and social inclusion as part of the economy (Brillat-Savarin, 2004; Kümin, 2003; Symons, 2013). Entrepreneurship and developing businesses are represented by an element of seizing opportunity, and exploiting such beneficial situations (Carter and Jones-Evans, 2006; Eckhardt and Shane, 2003).

From the initial stages of entrepreneurial spirit in accommodation and other business settings, industries have experienced vast changes in their operational styles, including the Fordism applique of mass production and limited skilled staff (Jackson, 2006) to streamline processes. Standardised work routines, work technologies, and mass production are further seen in the food industry following the birth of McDonald's burger chain and their global dominance (Beynon and Nichols, 2006; Smith, 2008).

2.6.4 McDonaldization

R restaurants were initially considered as an extension to domestic household settings, with a shift to a more commercial entity in the past few centuries (Mac Con Iomaire, 2013; Spang, 2000; Symons, 2013). Following the twentieth century analysis of the McDonalds restaurant concept and subsequent revolution of rationalization (Ritzer, 2010), saw the emergent theory of 'McDonaldization', dedicating concepts of homogeneity and process to service culture (Lashley, 1998).

The McDonaldization process engages the organisation which wishes to predict and control consumer behaviour through their development of codes of practice and by delivering a limited offering to their customer (Bareham, 2004). Adopting this rationalized system of product delivery relies on the assumption that the consumer will always behave in a predictable fashion, with the desire to order from the limited or set menu, or by purchasing set items which are highly standardised and offer limited option to modify (Ritzer, 2010; Taylor and Lyon, 1995).

McDonald embarked on simplification following 1948, when the McDonald brothers reduced their elements of service (carhops, china and cutlery), cut the menu offering, the price of a burger and became more organised in their equipment and its use (Symons, 2013). They chose to remove what they saw as the main obstacle in "fast-food service": the human element (both staff and consumers; choice, interaction, and ability to adapt orders to great extent). It was now that a human-friendly and personal-touch oriented industry became streamlined just as the assembly lines of Ford Motor Company had before them (DeVoe et al., 2013; Love and Miller, 1995; Symons, 2013), which were then developed to further effect with the globalisation of McDonald's under the reign of Ray Kroc and Harry Sonneborn (Schlosser, 2001; Vidal, 1997).

The principles of McDonaldization are the essence of its attractiveness in modern culture, culminating in success and adoption by many different organisation types (Ritzer, 2010). Standardisation and limited room for change have enabled the enhanced benefit brought by economies of scale (Ahuvia and Izberk-Bilgin, 2011). Precision, by use of non-human technology, ensures optimum use of materials, and further add to the standardisation of the product: the calculability and element of measure thus enables higher profits and cost cutting through understanding the performance or materials (for sake, an individual potato) (Zeng et al., 2012). Understanding streamlined processes and controls which enable cost cutting have also been adopted by non-profit organisations, who strive to increase their limited economic power from their tight, limited circumstances (Ritzer, 2010; Rost and Graetzer, 2013).

The control of human engagement within McDonaldized processes and organisations is increased through the use of nonhuman resources (Ritzer, 2010). It is not only machinery and tools that are used in this dimension, but the role of skillsets, materials, regulations and procedures, being used to limit interaction from humankind in order to leave the processes as designed and unadulterated (Koeber et al., 2012). Nonhuman technologies are used to control humans and their ability to hinder the expected routine of the processes design. For example, the use of automated telephone management systems, "drive-thru" windows, online banking, to name but a few, limit the potential for the end-user to exert power and demand response to an unknown or abnormal request, thus ensuring that, in some instances, the technology is able to react in the expected manner (Ritzer, 2010; Shank, 2013).

McDonald's paradigm of standardised products has become widespread and accepted in multiple industries, resulting in a global phenomenon of mass-production (Lashley, 2000; Ritzer, 2010; Taylor and Lyon, 1995). Delivering a predictable setting and experience has culminated in the feeling of safety and security of consumers (Osman et al., 2014; Ritzer, 2010). However, the limited opportunity for personal interaction and personalised dialogue, has created a somewhat conveyor belt approach in service situations, whereby the consumer enters the business (in person, in schools, at a drive-thru window, or during a phone conversation) and follows a dictated route to service delivery, and exit the business (Feather, 2011; Ritzer, 2010).

The McDonaldization of service delivery has not been restricted to the food and beverage industry, and evidence of its approach is apparent in many other service related organisations today. University students find themselves limited to the courses they may access (Altbach, 2004), hotel chains have formed to offer the same setting in multiple branded outlets (Ritzer, 2010; Symons, 2013), health care and hospitals exerts more and more control over patients (Waring and Bishop, 2013), and moreover sees formerly human technologies replaced with nonhuman alternatives: bank tellers with ATM's, telephone operators with automated answering systems, supermarket cashiers with self-service style checkouts (Koeber et al., 2012; Love and Miller, 1995).

2.6.5 *Today's Restaurants and Branding*

Adapting quickly to the poor economic climate, the UK Restaurant Industry sought strategies to protect it's (2010) £18.9bn value by generally halting expansion plans (KeyNote, 2011). However, it is through development and expansion that branded, corporately-controlled, restaurants have become large, multi-site businesses which have applied the ethos of mass production (Goss-Turner, 1999). By creating standard operating procedures and manipulating the supply chain of food production, brands have become able to operate by using specific and prescribed systems of food manufacture and product delivery, through focus on industrialised production practices (Goss-Turner, 1999; Schmenner, 1986).

With differentiation becoming indifferent in products and services in today's competitive markets (Lin and Huang, 2012), brands risk becoming unidentifiable to their consumers, meaning that the organisation must identify the important aspects of

the brands identity and what it's "personality" reflects or portrays to the customer (Aaker, 1995; Lin and Huang, 2012). It is these values that become symbolic differentiators of one branded organisation when viewed by consumers in comparison to others in the industry (Murase and Bojanic, 2004) which can in turn offer a method of greater awareness during consumers comparison process (Haigood, 1999).

The growth of branded restaurants has been created by consumers wishing an ubiquitous dining experience, as opposed to simply food and beverages (Auty, 1992). Branded outlets are more and more attractive to the industry due to their replication possibilities, which offers a simple formula of creating an ambience that customers come to expect or require (Auty, 1992). Initially, development in branded chains offered a suitable distance between units so as to replicate but attempt to retain an element of identity and individualism being offered to a new segment of a local market (Bolger, 1989). Success in the industry is masked back of house by a luring exterior which is set to entice patrons to enter, enjoy, and part with their hard-earned disposable income (Clardy and Beadle, 2010). Survival for managers within such businesses depends on their attention to detail from hygiene to quality, and the ability to deliver profit from thin margins, produced by the efforts of a typically young, inexperienced, and transient workforce (Clardy and Beadle, 2010; Gardner and Johnson, 2001). The work required to create an enjoyable ambience and experience for guests, is often through the completion of stressful, boring, and unrewarding tasks for which they are expected to repeat during long hours in the business (Clardy and Beadle, 2010; OnsØyen et al., 2009). Control in such businesses has become so focussed that the organisation's mission often determines its strategic nature (Kakavelakis, 2010). With such focussed control, the organisation must customise a standardised approach to human resource management which is dependent on the fickle humans who operate in the business environment (Kakavelakis, 2010; Lashley and Taylor, 1998). It is this control over customer-facing human resources that enables management to deliver the desired level of service in each of its units (Kakavelakis, 2010).

The management level of control over customer-facing operatives in a branded operation has been identified by four typologies (Kakavelakis, 2010; Lashley and Taylor, 1998). This first two of these typologies are of interest as they offer an explanation of how standardised and customised offerings in restaurant brands offer different levels of control. Operators such as McDonald's can be identified as Service

Factories due to their low level of customisation, or a very standardised product, combined with a low intensity of tangible labour force. More traditional style, yet still branded companies, for instance TGI Fridays or Frankie and Benny's offer a more customer focussed approach by means of larger menus (higher level of customization), yet still with a relatively low intensity of labour (Kakavelakis, 2010; Lashley, 2000; Lashley and Taylor, 1998). However, as one may expect, for this to be fortuitous and successful in service delivery, there must be in existence, a commitment from employees to the rules of the organisation (Lashley and Taylor, 1998).

As employee service is one of the most important factors affecting the image of branded restaurants, their performance is critical to the success of the operations and, thus, their conformity to what is required of them from management (Burmann and Zeplin, 2005; De Chernatony and Segal-Horn, 2001; Hur and Adler, 2011). It is important for employees to believe in the brand and to internalise what it stands for, only by doing this can they deliver the brand image to their customers (King and Grace, 2005; Krell, 2006).

Brands are identified as offering their customers with a number of different benefits. Functional benefits offer problem solving capacities; experiential benefits offer the customer sensory benefit or arousal stimulated by using or experiencing the brand; and, the symbolic benefits offer the customer attributes to associate with the brand (Das et al., 2012; Helgeson and Supphellen, 2004; Keller, 1993). Brand personality is identified as the human characteristics one associates with a brand (Maehle and Supphellen, 2011); honesty, integrity, family-friendly, cheery, bright, or successful (Plummer, 2000). Characteristics of brand personality become distinct to individual consumers, either attracting or deterring the use of a branded product or service (Aaker, 1995; Aaker, 1997; Das et al., 2012). Whilst brand personality is indeed reliant on the traits that become associated with it, it is, particularly in a service industry or environment, also the people delivering the service who represent the organisation that build the reputation and brand identity (Aaker, 1995; Maehle and Supphellen, 2011; Wee, 2004).

The UK industry is dominated by a number of operators, predominantly via multi-unit, branded restaurants including Bay Restaurants, Greene King, Burger King (UK), Gondola Group, Kentucky Fried Chicken (GB), Marston's, McDonald's Restaurants,

Mitchells & Butlers, Nando's Chickenland, Pizza Hut (UK), Punch Taverns, The Restaurant Group, Tragus, JD Wetherspoon, and Whitbread (KeyNote, 2011). All recognisable brands, which in 2009-10 were responsible for creating turnover in excess of £10.8bn in the UK alone (KeyNote, 2011). With the UK industry expected to be worth more than £13bn by 2015 (Gerrard, 2012), eating out continues to demonstrate economic growth activity in a recession, with a further forecast of an additional £5.6bn increase in turnover over the years until 2018 (Gerrard, 2013). This increase is expected to be in favour of branded chain operators, with a probable negative impact on independent owners/operators ("Eating Out in the UK 2011," 2011; Gerrard, 2013).

With such power however, comes responsibility. By 2009, the level of obesity in the UK had risen to 25% of adults, and 10% of children, with a major attributing factor being that at least a third of food consumed, is done so out with the home, in restaurants and fast-food establishments (Savage and Johnson, 2006; Zick et al., 2010). If restaurants were to provide nutritional labelling or data to their consumers, it is suggested that fewer calories will be consumed (Angell et al., 2012). Zick et al (2010) have, however, also deemed a number of barriers creating resistance to this method of customer information (table 2.8):

Table 2.8: Barriers of McDonaldization

Theme	**Barriers perceived**
Menu Restrictions	Less flexibility in menu writing Decreased opportunities for promotion due to decreased flexibility in menu items Extra space taken up on menus due to data/information included No clear suggestion what are the best formats for presenting date/information Standardised menus require more accuracy in all cooking processes
Consumer Interests	Consumers may find choices restrictive Consumers may perceive the addition of date/information confusing Employees may believe that healthy choices are not as tasty
Increased Costs	Longer development/implementation time for menus Standardised menus require additional administration Requirement of nutrition training for staff Danger of decreased sales

(adapted from Zick et al., 2010 p.561)

In addition to nutritional content, branded restaurants have also been scrutinised over their use of produce that is local to their trading units (Vieregge et al., 2007). Whilst the

use of local ingredients has a cost implication to the product, Vieregge et al (2007) offered incite to whether the consumer had a perception of any added value of doing so. Typically customers select (particularly between quick-service outlets) on specific brand attributes such as location, cost, food quality and customer environment quality (Kotler et al., 1999). As consumers will often choose the option that they are familiar with (Tarpey, 1994), brand reputation and familiarity should over-rule the image presented by organisations who offer locally sourced produce in their (generally) standardised menu (Mitchell and Greatorex, 1990; Vieregge et al., 2007). However, research has shown that marketing the use of local produce in branded outlets is appreciated by consumers, with the potential to bring increased sales to those operating branded units in the locale (Vieregge et al., 2007).

Summing up what a branded restaurant is purely an adaptation of the traditional concept of a restaurant. The traditional restaurant, whilst having its roots set in ancient Rome as a place of rest and replenishment of weary travellers, has developed into a commercial expectation. It has created a market which has had a titanic impact on the global economy in many forms. It is somewhere that one may grab something quick and cheap to eat, or it can also present itself at the other end of the spectrum as somewhere to enjoy lavish meals, with matched wines and beers to compliment tastes and flavours. It also offers a number of less extravagant options in the range between. The restaurant offers us choice of foods, at a range of costs. The branded restaurant is an adaptation of this concept. Branded restaurants are part of a network of identical products and offerings, in different locations. They use standard procedures and menus to create the same atmosphere that customers may find they enjoy, with a choice of geographic locations.

3. Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the methodology employed to conduct the research study of the thesis, namely the concepts which affect flow and commitment of hospitality staff in the UK Branded Restaurant Industry. It will also consider the issues which can arise in when applying the chosen methodology, in exploration of the identified factors through the means used to collect and analyse data relating to the concepts identified in the previous chapter (Literature Review). First, the chapter will discuss possible research design and methodology, and will provide a short review of research methods literature, strategies, and methods implemented in the hospitality industry. The chapter also includes an explanation of the research population and sample, data collection technique, how the collection was completed, and also limitations of the design and methodology used to extract empirical material in the field (UK Branded Restaurant Industry). Analysis of the data is then completed in the following chapter (Analysis of Empirical Material).

3.1.1 *Technique Employed*

The literature review sections of this thesis lead to the identification of constructs which were not only of interest to the researcher, but have a potential impact on the longevity of service and embracing motivational concepts for employees within the workplace. The numerous papers examined throughout the theoretical and contextual review of literature present methodologies of quantitative, qualitative, and mixed techniques, each of which has its own merits as explained in the previous sub-sections.

The method employed in this thesis was exclusively that of quantitative methods. This was due to the fact that the project intended to test existing theoretical phenomena that were identified throughout the review of existing literature. There is a need to further understand the relationships between the existing theories, and what can be gained by developing an understanding of their interconnectedness within the workplace since the outcome could aid the development of operations in such a large industry. Alternatively, the negative effect could possibly hinder progress and knowledge management through poor retention due to a lack of understanding the types of people working within important revenue stream. Not only does this affect the future of industry business operations within hospitality itself, but an industry which supports a

sizeable amount of monetary systems within countries which may greatly rely on the success trade from hospitality businesses.

Whilst the process of reviewing literature, and designing the final survey was arduous and timely, the rate of collecting data seemed to pale into insignificance in a timeline of the project. A number of weeks were set aside to allow data to be collated from the participants. To have collected data during lengthy interview or focus group activity, from 1133 participants would have required a large amount of time, or a team of researchers to complete.

Not only does a quantitative technique deliver results from analysis which are calculable and clearly measurable, they are precise and specific to the test being used at any time. One can draw from existing and extensive works, such as those of Pallant (2011) or Field (2013), to identify what the analysis suggest, then draw conclusion from the results in order to identify whether the hypotheses of the relationships are negatively or positively impacted by the constructs discussed in the literature chapter. By using the techniques discussed in the following chapter, the data is analysed scientifically and does not allow for bias to be drawn by the researcher.

By collecting data in an anonymous manner, it does not permit the researcher to be drawn into communication transactions, or to build any form of emotional ties with the participants that may hinder the ability to clinically, or scientifically, form conclusions based purely on facts presented in the analysis processes. With this in mind, the outcome of the analysis can often be considered as being more credible due to its scientific nature and, as discussed earlier, it can offer findings which are applicable to either a larger population, or replicable to sample populations in different industries, and future works comparing the response of people in different types of workplace.

3.1.2 Research Aim and Objectives

The overarching aim of the thesis is to identify the motivating factors for staff in the UK branded restaurant industry, through investigation of the relationships between motivation and behaviour with commitment. There are six main research objectives, which are as follows:

i. To identify and create theoretical underpinning by use of literature the drivers of flow and commitment which affects employees' flow and commitment based on Goffman's theory of Total Institutions within the UK Branded Restaurant industry
ii. To examine the nature of the drivers of flow (including motivation, spirituality, and deviant behaviour) on flow and commitment a sample of employees in UK branded restaurant industry
iii. To examine the nature of flow and commitment among a sample of employees in UK branded restaurant industry
iv. To examine the relationship between the drivers of flow on flow (H_1, H_2, H_3)
v. To examine the indirect relationship between the drivers of flow on commitment (H_4, H_5, H_6)
vi. To examine the relationship between flow and commitment (H_7)

The hypotheses, as set against each aim above, are as follow:

H_1: Motivation impacts positively FLOW in UK branded restaurant industry staff (to address objective iv)
H_2: Spirituality impacts positively FLOW in UK branded restaurant industry staff (to address objective iv)
H_3: Deviance impacts negatively FLOW in UK branded restaurant industry staff (to address objective iv)
H_4: There is an indirect positive relationship between motivation and commitment, mediated by flow (to address objective v)
H_5: There is an indirect negative relationship between deviance and commitment, mediated by flow (to address objective v)
H_6: There is an indirect positive relationship between spirituality and commitment, mediated by flow (to address objective v)
H_7: Flow positively influences commitment (to address objective vi)

The research aims will be addressed by collecting and analysing data by means of an online survey, from a population of respondents who currently work within the UK branded restaurant industry.

3.1.3 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy is part of the "*the theory of methods*" (Sarantakos, 1988; p. 465); it is the manner in which the researcher will endeavour to make sense of an object of enquiry. Guba and Lincoln (1994) discuss paradigms, and consider them as a basic belief system which is based on ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions. The authors consider that the principal belief that defines a paradigm is determined by the response to three fundamental questions: ontological question, epistemological question, and the methodological question. These are defined by Guba and Lincoln (1194; P. 108) as below:

> The ontology question: "*What is the form and the nature of reality? And, therefore, what is there that can be known about it?*"
>
> The epistemology question: "*What is the nature of the relationship between the knower, or the would-be knower, and what can be known? It is concerned with how we know the world and what is the relationship between the inquirer and the known*"
>
> The methodology question: "*How can the inquirer (the would-be knower) go about finding out whatever he/she believes can be known? It focuses on how we obtain knowledge about the world and indicates which research techniques are considered appropriate for collecting valid empirical evidence*." (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; P: 108)

However, O'Gorman and MacIntosh (2015), propose a liner progression to illustrate how the research project systematically moves from paradigm selection to data gathering and finally to data analysis approaches. This is illustrated in figure 3.1: Research Methods Map. The methods map provides a structured approach to identify the route followed in designing the paradigm employed in this study (O'Gorman and MacIntosh, 2015). The thesis and content is objective in nature, following a Critical Realist epistemology. As this then presents the researcher with a quantitative approach, the method of data collection chosen was by survey, and a number of the comparing groups tests then completed.

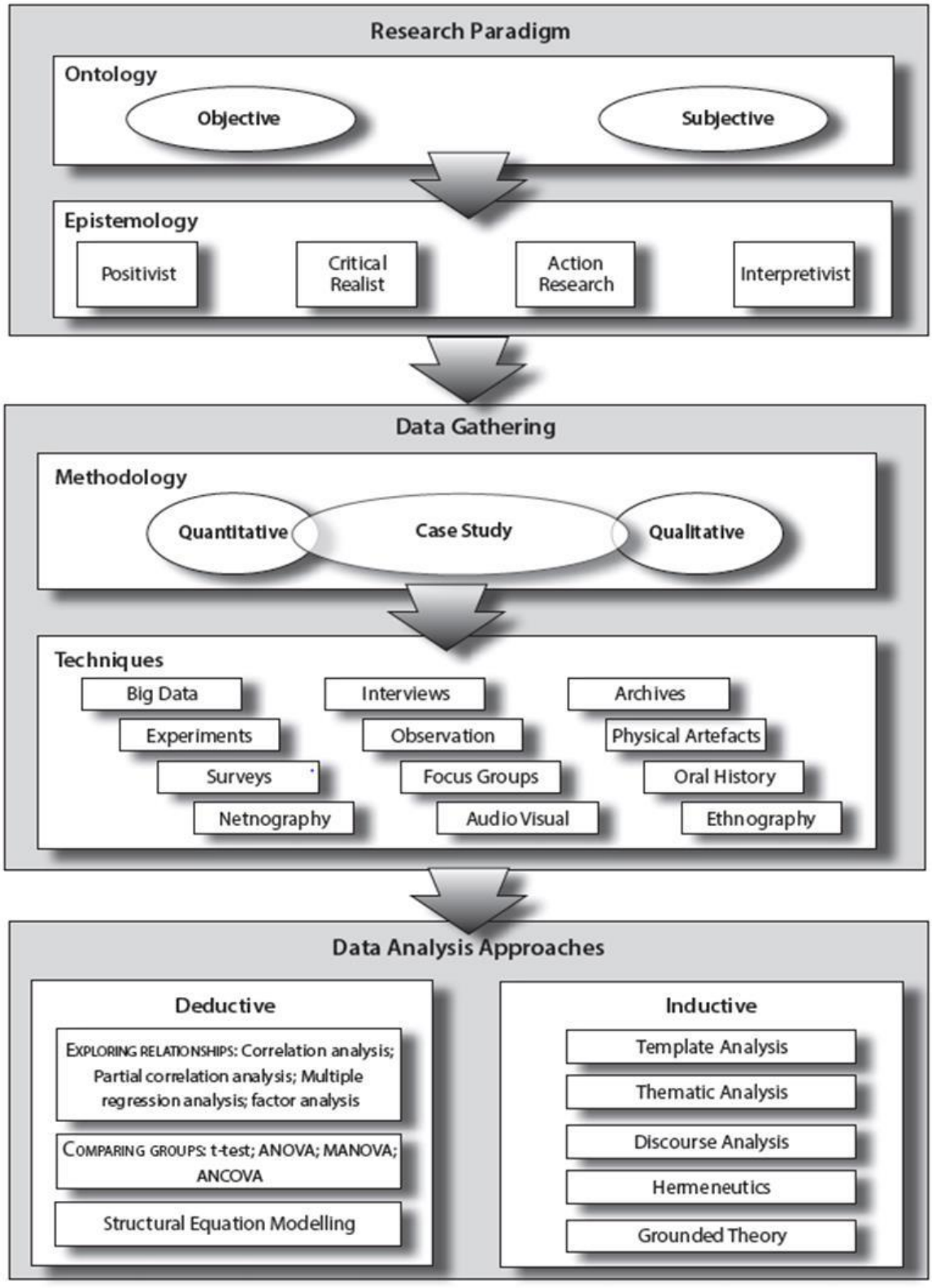

Figure 3.1: Research Methods Map

(O'Gorman and MacIntosh, 2015; p.51)

3.2 Research Paradigm

The research paradigm is the "theoretical framework, within which research is conducted" (O'Gorman et al., 2014: p.59) and, as figure 3.1 illustrates, there are two main components to a research paradigm: Ontology and Epistemology. Where ontology is understood as "The branch of metaphysics that deals with the nature of being. The nature of reality – that is being investigated in your dissertation" (O'Gorman et al., 2014: p.59). However it is clear that this is the reality that is being investigated within the research project and not some bigger question about belief systems in the universe. Whereas epistemology is defined as:

> "The branch of metaphysics that deals with the nature of knowledge, its presuppositions and foundations, and its extent and validity.
>
> - The study of knowledge
> - Theories of what constitutes knowledge and understanding of phenomena
> - How we explain ourselves as knowers, how we arrive at our beliefs"
>
> (O'Gorman et al., 2014: p.59).

Again within the confines of a thesis it is "nature of knowledge, its presuppositions and foundations, and its extent and validity" (O'Gorman et al., 2014: p.59) that subsist within the thesis that are explored. Before beginning a research project it has become generally accepted that it is necessary to outline the research paradigm the study will be conducted within. This tradition was established by Kuhn (1971) who also made it clear that it was good practice to remain within that paradigm within that paradigm once it had been selected. Ontological assumptions and Epistemological viewpoint of this thesis are now delimited before articulating data gathering and analysis approaches.

3.2.1 *Ontological Assumptions*

The two main ontological assumptions on the nature of reality are objective and subjective. Objective Reality is an understanding that the external world of reality exists independently of those within it. In essence, every individual can verify what exists, and that which cannot be verified, is not part of the objective reality (Azar, 2014; Kahneman and Tversky, 1973). In the case of this study, the context exists with or without the researcher; i.e. the branded restaurant operator taking part in the study will exist whether this study was completed or not; similarly, the staff working within the restaurants have their own views and feelings about the workplace whether they had the

opportunity to express them through the questionnaire or not. Whereas Subjective Reality makes no assumption of an external reality and holds that conscious understating is all that exists. The nature of subjective reality suggests that, whilst many individuals will share experiences in common, perception differs between everyone, due to the uniqueness of experiences, up-bringing, values, belief systems, and cultural awareness (Gallimore et al., 1993).

3.2.2 Epistemological Viewpoint

The selection of an epistemological viewpoint is potentially the most demanding and normally the most unnerving choice a researcher is faced with when considering their research project. There are four principal epistemological viewpoints which offer a structure, to organise social science research: positivism, critical realism, action research and interpretivism. Action Research is inappropriate for this study as it is practical in nature, with the researcher heavily involved in influencing change rather than being an objective observer. Primarily action research is concerned with:

> "…research resulting from involvement with an organization over a matter of genuine concern, where there is the intention to take action on the basis of intervention" (MacLean et al., 2002: p.192)

Generally, action research is less abstract and theoretical, but more practical, "is not generalizable, it is context specific and solves a particular problem, although it is required to contribute implications for industry" (Curran et al., 2014: p.67).

The three remaining epistemological viewpoints, along with their associated strategies and methods are summarised in table 3.1. Positivism and interpretivism are two contrasting paradigms of beliefs which represent how validity and applicable knowledge can be created (Bryant, 1985; Dessler, 1999). Most aspects of science traditionally call for an emphasis on the ability to quantify situations, or the results of tests (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). It was from this ethos that the positivist approach grew and was widely adopted by researchers in the social sciences. This was mainly due to the common belief that quantitative data is highly valid, and is capable of providing a high level of research quality (Sechrest and Sidani, 1995). A positivist approach also permits the researcher to replicate study findings in a different contextual setting (Sobh

and Perry, 2006), whilst offering availability (and reliability) of pre-determined mathematical tools, scales, and models which can be applied.

The positivist approach does, however, face criticism, with one of the most common being that it can often be poor and misleading as an approach to conducting research in social science. This is since it assumes objective external reality, upon which inquiry can converge (Hirschheim, 1992). Additionally, there are other problems associated with a positivist approach such as context stripping, exclusion of purpose or meaning, incoherent combination of theory with local contexts, and inapplicability of data to cases (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The constructivist paradigm has come from an important approach which permits the creation of a deep understanding of social phenomena (Dessler, 1999). There is still debate, though, about the possibility of generalising findings using this approach, and whether or not they can be generalised, and reapplied across other contexts (Dessler, 1999; Evans, 2011). Guba and Lincoln (1994), as shown in table 3.1, differentiate between constructivist and critical theory paradigms, offering the argument that critical theory is mainly characterised by the researchers' evaluative view, which is not clear in interpretive research.

Item	Positivism	Critical Theory	Constructivism
Ontology	**Naive Realism** Real reality (apprehendable reality) is assumed to exist. Knowledge is summarised in the form of time and context free generalisations which take the form of cause-effect laws	**Historical Realism** Reality is assumed to be apprehendable that was once plastic and was shaped by a congeries of social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic, and gender factors	**Relativist** Realities are apprehendable in the form of multiple intangible mental constructions, socially and experientially based. Reality is relative to observer, as there are many socially constructed realities that are not subject to any natural laws.
Epistemology	**Dualism/Objectivism** The investigator and the investigated object are assumed to be independent entities and cannot affect each other. When influence in either direction (threats to validity) is recognised or suspected various strategies are followed to reduce or eliminate it. Findings are true	**Transactional/Subjectivist** The investigator and the investigated object are assumed to be interactively linked, with the values of the investigator inevitably influencing the inquiry. Therefore findings are value mediated	**Transactional/ Subjectivist** The investigator and the object of investigation are assumed to be interactively linked so that the findings are literally created as the investigation proceeds. Therefore findings are created by the investigator
Methodology	**Experimental & Manipulative** Questions and/or hypotheses are stated in propositional form and subjected to empirical test to verify them; possible confounding conditions must be carefully controlled to prevent outcomes from being improperly influenced.	**Dialogic & Dialectical** The transactional nature of inquiry requires a dialogue between the investigator and the subjects of the inquiry. This dialogue must be dialectical in nature to transform ignorance and misapprehensions into more informed consciousness	**Hermeneutical/Dialectical** The variable and personal nature of social constructions suggests that individual constructions can be elicited and refined only through interaction between and among investigator and respondents. The final aim is to distil a consensus construction that is more informed and sophisticated than any of the predecessor constructions.

Inquiry Aim	Explanation, prediction and control	Critique and trans formation; restitution and emancipation	Understanding; reconstruction
Nature of Knowledge	Verified hypotheses established as facts or laws	Structural/historical insights	Individual reconstructions coalescing around Consensus
Knowledge Accumulation	Accretion - "building clocks" adding to "edifice of knowledge"; generalisations and cause-effect linkages	Historical revisionism; generalisation by similarity	More informed and Sophisticated reconstructions; vicarious experience
Goodness, or quality criteria	Conventional benchmarks of "rigor": internal and external validity, reliability and objectivity	Historical situatedness; erosion of ignorance	Trustworthiness and authenticity
Values	Excluded—influence denied	Included—formative	

Table 3.1: Basic Assumptions and Practical Issues of Different Research Paradigms

(adapted from: Guba and Lincoln, 1994)

The positivist paradigm offers a solution to dominant positivist paradigm (also known as empirical science) addresses some of the broad criticisms of positivism, such as 'value free' claims that are difficult to justify in research that involves human participants (Creswell, 2013; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009) and represents a shift from pure positivism (Easterby-Smith et al., 2004) which implies an external world that is measured through objective methods. Reality is external and objective, in ontological terms, and epistemological knowledge is not significant unless observed from reality (Easterby-Smith et al., 2004; Gill and Johnson, 2010). The positivist paradigm, and variations of it, has dominated social science research of the 20th Century (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

Positivist philosophy is determining and aims to demonstrate causality; identifying and assessing what causes and influences outcomes, as one may expect in an experiment (Creswell, 2013). Reality remains objective, and it can be measured as such. Thus, "numeric measures of observations and studying the behaviour of individuals become paramount" (Creswell, 2013: p.7). The post-positivist will generally acknowledge hypothetical and deductive tactics whereby the start with a theory; developing a hypothesis (or set of hypotheses) around a small and discreet collection of ideas which can be tested through quantitative statistical analysis of data. This analysis then permits them to support, or negate the theory (Creswell, 2013; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

During the second half of the 20th Century a different philosophical paradigm emerged in reaction to positivism in the social sciences (Easterby-Smith et al., 2004; Gill and Johnson, 2010). Constructivism is often referred to as interpretivism and has developed as a practical alternative which is used widely within the social sciences (Creswell, 2013; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). The interpretivist researcher assumes that an individual seeks to further understand the social world in which they work and live, and do such by creating meaning around their experiences (Creswell, 2013; Guba and Lincoln, 1994). These researchers seek a range of views as opposed to the reductionist offering of post-positivism. As far as possible, the goals within interpretivist research rely on the views offered by the participants involved in the study, and subjective meaning is negotiated both socially and historically (Creswell, 2013; Guba and Lincoln, 1994), not only that which has been impressed on the individual through interaction with others, and historical or cultural beliefs and understanding (Creswell, 2013; Gill and Johnson, 2010). More often, research is carried out using inductive methods

whereby theories and patterns of meaning are developed Creswell, 2013; Gill and Johnson, 2010). Interpretivist methods normally involve the collection, analysis, and interpretation of narrative (qualitative) information (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

The interpretivist paradigm has come from an important approach which permits the creation of a deep understanding of social phenomena (Dessler, 1999). There is still debate, though, about the possibility of generalising findings using this approach, and whether or not they can be reapplied across other contexts (Dessler, 1999; Evans, 2011). Guba and Lincoln (1994), as shown in table 3.1, differentiate between interpretivist and critical theory paradigms, offering the argument that critical theory is mainly characterised by the researchers' evaluative view, which is not clear in interpretive research.

The basic ontological understanding of Critical Realism (CR) is that reality exists; it can be conceptualised and theories drawn to describe it. At the same time, CR does not offer a comprehensive understanding of the problems which are being researched, and it does not claim to accept that all knowledge is fallible (Jeppesen, 2005). Central to CR is its division of reality into different domains with varying propensity. Empirically, it is possible to observe experiences and phenomena: the events which are experienced in reality. Identification of the actual domain shows the "mechanism" of what is real. Epistemologically, CR has the aim of explaining relationships between experiences, events, and mechanisms with the perspective emphasising questions of why, or how, phenomenon came to be (Bhaskar and Danermark, 2006; Patomäki and Wight, 2000).

CR in the social sciences offers the ability to investigate conditions of the researchers' understanding of theory and context. Social structures, even formal organisations and companies, often have unintended outcomes which may not be evident to those acting or taking part in social engagement (Gorski, 2013). CR offers a scientific method of examination to measure engagement and activity throughout many aspects of everyday life, including events of nature, and social conventions. Realism in this context allows reflection and revision of understanding how things work, and are perceived (Bhaskar and Danermark, 2006; Collier, 1994; Gorski, 2013).

For the purpose of this study, the optimal paradigm identified is a Post-Positivist/Critical Realism approach. Within the context of the thesis, the research is

trying to draw additional meaning to existing theory, through analysing those who engage in the reality of the studies' contextual setting: UK Branded Restaurants.

CR offers an alternative interpretation of life and thought from modernism and postmodernism (Archer et al., 1998; Evans, 2011; López and Potter, 2001). Where postmodernism indulges complexity and ambiguity, realism strives to find clarity and simplicity (López and Potter, 2001). Bhaskar's work can be separated into four constructs which underpin the overarching theory of CR (Archer et al., 1998); Transcendental Realism, Critical Naturalism, Explanatory Critiques, and Dialectics. CR was born from combination and elision of the terms Transcendental Realism and Critical Naturalism, and was accepted by the majority of Critical Realists further to the suggestion of affinity (transcendental and critical) with Kant's 18th Century Critique of Pure Reason (Kritik der reinen Vernunft) (Kant, 1781), and the use of realism, which identify the differences from it (Archer et al., 1998).

Social structures, even formal organisations and companies, have often unintended outcomes which may not be evident to those acting or taking part in social engagement (Gorski, 2013). CR offers a scientific method of examination to measure engagement and activity throughout many aspects of everyday life, including events of nature, and social conventions. Realism in this context must be critical, as it allows reflection and revision of understanding how things work, and are perceived (Gorski, 2013). As demonstrated by the literature in Chapter 2, there are many works on the application of theory in industry, and numerous workplaces. However, there is paucity in works that consider an important facet of the hospitality industry, which provides a wealth of income and employment opportunities in the United Kingdom.

CR offers an alternative to the sterile approaches of positivism and constructionism/interpretivism (Mingers, 2015) to the social sciences such as marketing, organisational studies, and strategy (Fleetwood and Ackroyd, 2004; Mir and Watson, 2001). In order to establish academic credibility, previous business studies have focused on positivist approaches, based mainly on economics, with a later move to interpretive/constructive philosophies (Rosenau, 1992); both of which moderate against practice-based research. Two further issues arising with a positivist approach are that the idea of causality is limited, and that there is a very limited perception of what can and cannot be measured (Mingers, 2006). Causality is little more that the statistical

association between variables, and in this study such a narrow approach would work well, however, it is also studying more humanistic concepts such as motivation and spirituality. Thus, CR permits a hybrid method to be applied, including the collection of valid quantitative data which can be used to further understand the complex, and somewhat factorial causes for actions and behaviour (Mingers, 2015; Sherden, 1998; Silver, 2012).

3.3 Data Gathering

3.3.1 *Methodology*

The most common methodologies in the social sciences are the use of qualitative and quantitative research (Bryman, 2003). Over the years the virtues of quantitative and qualitative methodologies have received great considerations (Dixon-Woods et al., 2005). Whilst there is varying preference or perceived benefit of either method amongst authors, there is a general agreement about the basic antinomy of each, and practical implications for both methods when considering the epistemological value when used in research (Bryman, 1984, 2003). One issue which can occur is the tendency for confusion to occur amongst the philosophical and technical use of employing either research method (Bryman, 1984; Morgan, 1998). The broadly generalise, philosophical issues raise questions relating to epistemology, and technical issues consider which of the methods is more superior, therefore more apt for use in the context of research (Bryman, 1984, 2003). In addition to this quandary of which method to use, there is also the option of mixed-methods to consider, which is the combining of both quantitative and qualitative methods in a piece (or series) of research (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

A quantitative research methodology is a logical empirical observation of phenomena in research but means of statistical data, normally using computer software for analysis calculation. The aim of a quantitative research project is to develop theories and then test them using empirical, statistical data sets, collected from a sample of the population identified as being of interest to the study. Measurement is key within this method as it offers the essential identification of relationships (or them not existing) between conceptual models, empirical observations, and a mathematical expression of relationships by analysis of the data set(s) (Bryman, 1984, 2003). It is an approach that starts with theory on a particular problem or area of interest, it then creates hypothesis, and aims to either prove or disprove these through the analytic assessment of empirical

data collected from subjects pertinent to a context relating to the theory (Taheri, Lu, et al., 2014).

Quantitative data is that which is represented in numerical form such as a statistic, percentage, or calculation from formulae. Researchers use statistical analysis to review the data and compare it to the theories formed from either empirical observations, or conceptual models based on reviews of previous material (Pallant, 2011). By asking participants in a survey specific, narrow (sets of) questions, it is hoped that numbers offer an unbiased result from a sample which can be used to generalise the views of a larger population. In these terms, population refers to the overall group which relates to the research (Field, 2013). This study focuses on the core concepts of the research (spirituality, motivation, and deviant behaviour) and their relationships with flow, and indirectly with commitment. This is captured by the analysis of empirical quantitative data collected from a population of employees in the UK branded restaurant industry. The industry itself has been discussed, and defined, in Chapter 2 (2.4 Context for Study: UK Branded Restaurant Industry)

Quantitative methods are widely used in the social sciences, and statistics are the branch of quantitative most widely used in this field. The research will start with data being collected from the sample population, via questioning which is normally presented in the form of a survey – either telephone, face to face, postal, or internet/email based (Andrews et al., 2003). Data is then entered into a software package, such as IBM SPSS, in order to begin running test procedures to identify causal relationships between opinions offered by respondents within the data set (Field, 2013). One of the fundamental principles of quantitative research is that correlation in relationships within the analysis results does not always suggest causation; indeed it is possible that spurious relationships exist between variables in the data, in layman's terms, a coincidence in the results may suggest correlation, and this can be explained by covariance (Bryman, 1984, 2003; Dainty et al., 2002).

Qualitative methods are unstructured by nature and seek to offer understanding of the research topic, or of a problem area through the development of analysis following dialogue or observation of a sample population (Javalgi et al., 2011; Malhotra, 2007). These methods are used to help researchers better understand the data offered by research participants, through the way in which they communicate behaviours and

individual psychology in regard to the research topic (Carter and Little, 2007; Javalgi et al., 2011). Hypotheses in qualitative techniques are formed during the data collection and analytical processes, and are often highly subjective, dependent on the responses and nature of discussion or observations made (Britten et al., 1995; Javalgi et al., 2011), thus qualitative techniques will often be employed to identify initially what the problem may be (Britten et al., 1995).

Given the different qualitative data collection techniques available, they can be employed to identify different areas of study, which can then be further analysed utilizing quantitative methods to measure the extent of the issue, or area of interest (Britten et al., 1995). For example, an extended period of observation, even over a number of years, may allow fuller analysis and arguable better insight of situations in a contextual setting (Atkinson and Pugsley, 2005). With reference to the previous hypothesis creation relevance, qualitative methods can also be used to test hypotheses depending on the nature of the study. Britten et al. (1995) point to the example of Dingwall and Murray (1983) who take previous studies within hospital's accident and emergency context, and add to them by making further observations in order to test how different members of staff categorise the nature of injury entering the department.

In addition to these, qualitative methods are also applicable in cases where data of a sensitive nature is being collected. An example of this approach being relevant is apparent in some of the works involving Neil McKeganey (Frischer et al., 1993; McIntosh and McKeganey, 2000; McKeganey et al., 1992) who researches either vulnerable people, or those who are suffering from illness or disease, habitual addictions, or work in risky and often illegal situations. The more personal action is required to not only obtain data or information from participants, but often, more importantly, to gain the trust of those people being canvassed for information due to their social situation.

Purists of either a quantitative or mixed methodology will offer reasoning for their preferred method being the most suitable for research (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004), arguing that they are mutually incompatible and should not be mixed (Howe, 1988). However, the third academic research paradigm of mixed methods takes arguments beyond qualitative versus quantitative, and seeks to advocate, as a technique, the use of both. The main purpose of adopting a mixed method is to engage the virtues

of both methods, and to minimize the weaknesses which can be experienced by using either exclusively (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Palinkas et al., 2011).

Of the literature reviewed in Chapter 2, there are a range of methodological techniques employed, including qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods. Whilst there is no clear rule of which method is best, quantitative techniques offer different benefits in order to provide a clear analysis, without emotional attachment to the subjects within the sample. It is due to the benefits discussed above that quantitative methods was applied to this thesis.

3.3.2 Techniques

A number of different data collection techniques are identified which include; experiment, survey, case study, grounded theory, ethnographic studies, action research, exploratory studies, and cross-sectional studies. The three most commonly adopted strategies, however, are experiments, surveys, and case studies, due the benefits offered from using them (Robson, 2002). Case studies involve an investigation (empirical) of "*contemporary phenomenon within its real life context*" (Robson, 2002; P. 178), and an experiment is used to measure the effect of manipulating variables, most often in the natural sciences (Robson, 2002; P. 88). Survey strategy, however, offers the means to systematically collect data from a number of units or individuals, in order to build a source of quantifiable data which relates to any number of variables. This data can then be examined in order to identify patterns of association, or relationships (Bryman, 2003).

3.4 Technique Employed

The literature review sections of this thesis lead to the identification of constructs which were not only of interest to the researcher, but have a potential impact on the longevity of service and embracing motivational concepts for employees within the workplace. It was decided to use a large scale survey in order to answer the research objectives.

3.4.1 The Principal Survey

Quantitative studies offer some different mechanisms for collecting data. For the purpose of this study, data was collected by using a survey. Surveys offer the researcher a method which is structured and enables a great number of people to be asked the exact same questions, in the same order, with no option or danger of human

interaction to alter either the uniformity, or how the question can be understood by the respondent (Neuman, 2000; Taheri et al., 2014). Sarantakos (1988: p.233) describes survey methods with two distinctions. Surveys can be completed verbally, with data collectors asking respondents to answer questions on a prescribed form, and recording the answer, or "questionnaires" can be completed where the written questions are delivered to the participant, for them to record answers without additional human interaction (Neuman, 2000; Taheri et al., 2014). Surveys offer a number of benefits to the researcher, making them appealing in quantitative research and data collection. In this respect, questionnaires, depending on their delivery method, can offer a low-cost, timely option to collect a large volume of data from participants, who may otherwise not give researchers the opportunity to collect data from them if it requires a lengthy conversation, as opposed to ticking boxes, or even completing online via internet surveys (Taheri et al., 2014).

The survey was developed using pre-existing scales (as discussed in the Literature Review) which have been used prior to this study, but not in the same combination. The literature identified the scales as being well-proven (Rammstedt and John, 2007). Survey topics included from those identified in the literature review aimed to cover an amalgam in order to collate data which was a pertinent reflection of the views and behaviour of people working in the field, to develop a better understanding of the conceptual model and its relationships.

Therefore, the method employed in this thesis was quantitative. The questionnaire was used principally to address the objective of the study and test the hypotheses. This was due to the fact that the project intended to test existing theoretical phenomena that were identified throughout the review of existing literature. There is a need to further understand the relationships between the existing theories, and what can be gained by developing an understanding of their interconnectedness within the workplace since the outcome could aid the development of operations in such a large industry. Alternatively, the negative effect could possibly hinder progress and knowledge management through poor retention due to a lack of understanding the types of people working within important revenue stream. Not only does this affect the future of industry business operations within hospitality itself, but an industry which supports a sizeable amount of monetary systems within countries which may greatly rely on the success trade from hospitality businesses.

Whilst the process of reviewing literature, and designing the final survey was arduous and timely, the rate of collecting data seemed to pale into insignificance in a timeline of the project. A number of weeks were set aside to allow data to be collated from the participants. To have collected data during lengthy interview or focus group activity, from 1133 participants would have required an enormous amount of time, or a team of researchers to complete. Neither time nor funds were available to complete this – the standard time allotted for the completion of a PhD at Heriot-Watt University is three years. From an early stage, this timeframe was understood to be acceptable, not only in order to complete it within the constraints prescribed, but also to ensure that the use of the data collected remained relatively current from collection, through analysis, to completion of the overall thesis.

Not only does a quantitative technique deliver results from analysis which are calculable and clearly measurable, they are precise and specific to the test being used at any time. One can draw from existing and extensive works, such as those of Pallant (2011) or Field (2013), to identify what the analysis suggest, then draw conclusion from the results in order to identify whether the hypotheses of the relationships are negatively or positively impacted by the constructs discussed in the literature chapter. By using the techniques discussed in the following chapter, the data is analysed scientifically and does not allow for bias to be drawn by the researcher.

By collecting data in an anonymous manner, it does not permit the researcher to be drawn into communication transactions, or to build any form of emotional ties with the participants that may hinder the ability to clinically, or scientifically, form conclusions based purely on facts presented in the analysis processes. With this in mind, the outcome of the analysis can often be considered as being more credible due to its scientific nature and, as discussed earlier, it can offer findings which are applicable to either a larger population, or replicable to sample populations in different industries, and future works comparing the response of people in different types of workplace. The following sections will explain the sample selection and the nature of participation in more detail.

3.4.2 *Online Survey Strategy: Method of Completion*

The online survey helps researchers to understand the motivation behind employees' behaviour and how such motivations drive subsequent attitudes and behavioural intentions (Chan and Li, 2010). The use of email to direct participants to an online survey engine (Survey Monkey) was chosen due to a number of reasons. In the first instance, the simplest method of distributing the survey via the different organisations HR departments was to distribute a link to the web site via email. This facilitated speedy access to possible respondents of the survey. Some characteristics of survey methods are show in table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Survey Type Characteristics

Survey Type	**Characteristics**
Online	• Respondent completes • Low cost • Accessible via email/internet • Medium response rate
Street (face-to-face)	• Interviewer completes • Medium cost • Medium response rate • Time taken to complete loses access to other passers-by • Reliant on respondents being approached, and willing to stop and answer questions
Telephone	• Interviewer completes • Medium cost • Relies on access to respondents with telephone • Relies on access to respondents' telephone number • Time consuming • Falling response rate
Mail	• Respondent completes • Postage costs • Return postage costs • Time consuming to print, send, complete, receive surveys • Time consuming to input data • Risk of data input errors • Low response rate

(Deutskens et al., 2006; Hung and Law, 2011; Szolnoki and Hoffmann, 2013)

E-mail surveys are often seen as a more modern extension of the traditional postal method, whereby a number of paper copies would be made and posted to possible respondents. In order to do this, a large cost would have been experienced due to trying to create a large volume of paper copies to distribute amongst a number of staff in a number of different organisations. A designer and printer would need to have been

engaged to produce a large volume of postal survey, due to their being such a large number of potential participants.

There was also the cost of handling such a large number of copies, which would have to be posted, and supplied with return paid envelopes. Email and postal surveys have a similar response rate, of up to 10%, but the cost saving is vast (Sinclair et al., 2012). On receipt of 1133 paper-based surveys, there would then have been the issue of time and manpower to input the responses into data analysis software: SPSS in this case. With the expectation of a 10% response rate, and the number of questions in the survey, that calculated at almost 100,000[1] individual pieces of data to be entered. This also creates the possibility of errors being made when transferring the data through input from paper to electronic media.

Paper based surveys also posed data protection implications which may have created barriers of time in gaining permission to access personal details, such as home addresses to send these to participants. There is also the reliance of employees having ensured that they had kept their employers up to date with any changes in home, or correspondence address. However, email does not necessarily remove all of the problems. The data collection was dependent on the employer organisations holding information of email addresses on employees, which was not true for all staff members. There was also no requirement that the participants in this study complete the survey, and there was no financial, or other, incentive available to encourage people to take part.

The main area of concern was that employers chose specific staff members who were likely to give responses which would be seen as more favourable and show the organisations taking part in a better light. This was not the intention of the study, merely to gauge personal opinion of people in different workplaces within the industry in question, to identify any relationships between the constructs, from an empirical viewpoint. Another potential issue was that whilst people have given email addresses, there was no way of ensuring that these were either up to date, or valid, without gaining further permission to access personal records within the organisation, or individually checking a percentage from up to 12,500 email addresses which bounced back as not

[1] 1133 surveys were completed online. The scaled and open-ended questions required each participant to make 86 responses throughout the completion: 1133 x 86 = 97,438.

contactable, or incorrectly input in the payroll or other HR Management Systems being operated.

The final sample population in the dataset was a mix across three different job role levels. At the time of data collection, people within "Staff" roles are in hourly paid operating level roles (including waiting, bar-tending). "Supervisor" roles are those who are in charge of shifts, with a short-term responsibility for leading a team of people during certain business hours and, "Managers" are those with overall responsibility of the business on a daily or longer term basis.

3.4.3 Sourcing and Selecting Data

Following similar sampling protocol (Wilson, 2006) as the exploratory employee interviews, this survey was administrated online for completion, with analysis (following data being imported) in SPSS. Judgmental Sampling is used in cases where the researcher requires independent, individual responses from only those who have first-hand experience of the constructs for which data is being collected (Butler, 1985; Ponemon and Wendell, 1995). For the purpose of this research study, operators of branded restaurant businesses in the United Kingdom were identified by a number of means, including reports from KeyNote (2011). This type of sampling is considered appropriate to explorative studies, such as this, where the aim includes generating theory and a better understanding of social processes and action (Morrison and Teixeira, 2004). It is a subjective method of sampling, often based on experience and knowledge, used to identify specific populations (or locations) which are of interest and use to the researcher (Zhang and Zhang, 2012). Although judgmental sampling can reduce the number of research cases, or limit the population size due to the specifics of criteria set by the researcher, it permits the required population to be identified which is pertinent to the study. However, although biased, judgmental sampling does not support statistical interference (Ponemon and Wendell, 1995; Zhang and Zhang, 2012). As the thesis is an empirical analysis with a specific interest in UK branded restaurant industry staff, this sampling method was applied in August 2013.

<u>Sample Population</u>

The target organisations were identified from the use of the Keynote (2012) Restaurants report, as this was the most recent publication available at point of data collection requirement. Human Resource departments were contacted at each of the businesses, in order to request permission to distribute surveys to their staff. Due to the number of

employees within each business (some groups operate a number of brands) totalling anywhere up to 40,000 people, it was suggested that either a URL link be emailed to the employer for distribution, or make it available, where possible, via payslips. In order to minimise the disruption to the operators identified[2], the researcher agreed up to that only 5% of the individual organisations staff be notified. The overall total number of employees across the organisations totalled over 243,000 people, resulting in a possible response from over 12,150 people. The final respondents totalled 1133 people – a return of 9.3%.

The scope of this part of the project was no larger than expected, but the process of contacting numerous organisations, resolving contact with the correct people, engaging in numerous discussions to negotiate access to staff, and subsequently executing the survey access distribution and data collection, did inhibit previously identified timescales. From start to finish, including testing, pilot study, and finally the collection of empirical data used in the thesis, this part of the project took just over six months.

During the period of negotiations to access the employees, the approved survey was created on the data collection site "Survey Monkey" which was chosen due to the relative low cost of collating vast amounts of data. The online "software" also permits export to Microsoft Excel, in turn enabling import to IBM SPSS software, where the bulk of analysis was to be completed. However, internet based surveys do have their own limitations and can create additional issues for the researcher (Andrews et al., 2003), to identify possible issues with the translation of the survey to an electronic method of collection, and to find and correct any set up problems with the user interfaces, a test survey of ten responses was carried out amongst fellow PhD students at Heriot-Watt University.

A few, minor issues, were resolved; in six instances throughout the survey, it was possible to answer more than one response to a question. The question set up was amended, and a further set of the questions was copied to a new, empty data set on Survey Monkey. This pilot was completed by 25 respondents at an Edinburgh based Company which operates a number of units, including hotels, bars, and restaurants, throughout Scotland. This time, the survey URL was distributed to one General

[2] The operators who took part in this study were: Mitchells & Butlers, McDonald's, KFC, Tragus Ltd, JD Wetherspoons, Whitbread, Nando's, Giraffe Restaurants, Clapham House Group Plc, Aberdeen Angus Steakhouse, Greene King, Bay Restaurant Group

Manager in Edinburgh who was then made responsible by the groups Managing Director to distribute the link amongst staff. The group Human Resources Manager was involved following the completion by 25 staff members, to identify who completed the pilot. The surveys were completed with no problem, other than adding extra time to the overall process of data collection.

3.4.4 Representative of the Sample, and Sample Size

The sample size and representativeness of the sample are influenced by considerations of time, cost, calculations of confidence intervals and degree of accuracy, interviewer bias, sampling error and the problem of non-response (Bryman, 2008). There is no exact judgment that can be made on how representative is the sample without further extensive study. But, there is considerable debate over what is the acceptable sample size for the results to be statistically valid (Hair et al., 2010). Swetnam (2006: p. 43) notes that "the smaller the sample the less is the generalisability of the results". Different scholars recommend dissimilar sample sizes as suitable for quantitative research, including an absolute sample from 200 to 300 (Hair, et al., 2010). Veal (1998) argues that for large populations small samples are less problematic.

The representative of the sample is a subset of the population which reflects the members of the entire population. The mean is the centre of distributed scores for each of the questions answered by the respondents. In this instance, the mean represents the entirety of 1133 people. Whilst this result is a hypothetical estimate, variance or standard deviation is used to identify if the mean is representative of the population (Field, 2013).

The sample in this thesis was staff currently working in UK Branded Restaurants during the time of data collection. The sample contained responses from 1133 people completing the survey, at varying levels of length of service within their current organisation. Of the 1133, five cases had missing values, making 1128 sets of responses valid for analysis. The sample population was made up of 381 male, and 747 female respondents.

Additional industries could have been considered prior to the final survey being made live, as this would give the option of applying the models and survey method to other workplaces. However, the basis of this thesis was to collect data from people working

within the UK Branded Restaurant Industry. For that reason, the only option expected was 2, and the standard deviation of .000 identifies that nobody taking part answered that they are operated in other industries. As the literature considers many other options for institutionalisation, options available were created.

What is your current position was used in order to identify if the respondent was one of three possible groups within their organisation. The category "staff" (1) was created in order for waiting or bar tending staff to identify themselves. Other expected people in this category would be those with no supervisory or management responsibilities, such as door hosts, baristas, table bussers, or less qualified chefs who do not have the responsibility to manage other members of staff. Option 2 (supervisor) relates to people who may have minor obligatory management tasks to complete. And, 3, was used to identify those who have management duties and subsequent job titles. The average response of 1.63 shows that, in the most part, those completing the survey were either "staff" or "supervisors", whilst the standard deviation notes that there were people responding with higher values and a number of managers did also take part.

The highest rank question shows that people in the sample population have progressed in their current organisations. Four categories were set up for length of service and described as 1: 1-3 years, 2: 4-6 years, 3: 7-9 years, and 4: 10+ years. The mean answer for this question was 1.68 with a standard deviation of .903. This suggests that most people have been with their current employer for around 3-4 years, and a marginal amount up to around seven or eight years.

"Is this your first and only place of work for your current employer?" was used to identify if people had perhaps transferred from one unit to another within an organisation. Some of the companies taking part only offer progression if the employee is to move to another restaurant in order to demonstrate their talent is transferrable, and not due to relationships formed in the initial or previous place of work. The mean of 1.54 suggests that a higher percentage of staff did indeed move amongst other units/places of work for the one employer. In fact, 611 people answered that they have worked in more than one place, with 516 having worked in the same restaurant.

An average response of 1.73 showed that the majority of staff completing the survey identifies themselves as being part of a workgroup or team. And a mean if 2.45

confirms the average size of a team in their workplace is between 1-5 members of staff. The following question was used to gauge the education level which had been reached by the people responding to the survey. The mean in the sample population was 3.18 which confirmed that most of the respondents had achieved, at minimum, a university undergraduate degree.

On almost all occasions, all respondents answered all questions. The instances where data was found to be missing were as follows:

Table 3.3 Missing Data

Question	Detail	Construct
Q5_3	The reason I prefer this company is because of its values and what it stands for	Commitment
Q7_1	I believe in faith	Spirituality
Q7_2	I believe in a religion	
Q7_3	I believe in god	
Q7_4	I think about how my life is part of a larger spiritual force	
Q7_5	I work together with God as a partner	
Q7_6	I look to God for strength, support, guidance	
Q7_7	I feel that God punishes me for my sins or lack of spirituality	
Q7_8	I wonder whether God has abandoned me	
Q7_9	I try to make sense of the situation and decide what to do without relying on God	

3.4.5 *Non-Response*

Online, internet based surveys have become the preferred route for delivering surveys to respondents, over the former options of face-to-face questioning or traditional postal delivery (Bosnjak and Tuten, 2001). This method of collecting data from respondents offers many advantages over traditional methods of collecting quantitative data. As computer hardware becomes more affordable and widely accessible, it enables the collection of responses from more facets of society than was previously possible, and also those who could not be approached for reasons such as mobility, health, or geographical limitation (Nie et al., 2002). Since greater access to communications technology allows the researcher to approach a larger audience, possibly in the comfort of their own homes or via mobile technology, it can be seen as a route to engaging a larger sample in a speedy manner, thus reducing the time constraints experienced when using other, paper-based or telephone survey methods (Nie et al., 2002; Taylor, 2000).

Whilst previous studies (Andrews et al., 2003; Mehta and Sivadas, 1995; Thompson et al., 2003) have shown that online surveying methods offer potentially higher rates of response than experienced from traditional techniques, tracking is brought to question as it can be difficult to ascertain non-response tracking from large communities of online users (Andrews et al., 2003; Wright, 2005). Before acknowledging the different types of non-responder, it is perhaps justified to consider three conditions identified by Batinic and Bosnjak (1997) to encourage completion of the entire survey. The first condition suggested is to offer each question on a new screen, so that once one response is made and submitted, a fresh screen is shown to the respondent, reducing the likelihood that previous answers cloud the next. Second, the authors suggest that responses are not forced upon the participant: internet survey set up makes it possible to use forced answering, which ensures that the respondent must give an opinion on each question throughout the survey, before moving to the next item. This offers the benefit of limited respondent error, due to the elimination of item non-response. However, it also may make the respondent feel inhibited by the pressure to complete each and every item within items being questions for each construct, resulting in them breaking off early, and not completing the survey at all (Albaum et al., 2011).

Finally, each page of the questionnaire being downloaded should not offer the ability to revisit previous questions. This stops the participant from re-thinking past responses, and editing the initial, instinctive answer (Batinic and Bosnjak, 1997; Bosnjak and Tuten, 2001). Bosnjak and Tuten (2001) offer a description of respondent segmentation in online survey completion which is described in table 3.3.

Table 3.4: Descriptor of Non-Response Types

Type	Description
Complete Responder	View, and answer, all questions
Unit Non-Responder	Do not participate in the survey - No access to technology - Choose not to complete, but do not view questions
Answering Drop-Out	Partial completion, then quit the survey
Lurkers	View all questions, but do not answer any
Lurking Drop-Out	Views some questions, does not answer all, quit survey before complete
Item Non-Responder	View all questions, but only answer some
Item Non-Responder Drop-Out	View some questions, answer some questions, quit survey before complete

In order to collect empirical data in this study, forced answering was not a pre-requisite of the settings when the questionnaire was loading online. Instead, the additional option was offered to the respondent on the Likert scale. This option was called "No Opinion", which gave the participant to give a response which was not deemed to be positive, neutral, nor negative. An alternative choice may have been "prefer not to answer", but the former was chosen over the latter to reduce word count, therefore server space, and to add to the aesthetic of the layout (Albaum et al., 2011; Oppenheim, 1992).

3.5 Survey Design

The purpose of questioning in surveys is to extract specific communication from respondents It is the intention of the researcher therefore that they can use appropriate wording to draw the data from participants without distorting the ideas or thinking of the individual completing the questionnaire (Oppenheim, 1992). The way in which questions are written, or worded, can have an impact on how people perceive them, and indeed how they respond, and it is important that questions do not offend the respondent, in order to encourage them to continue and fully complete what is being asked of them (DeVaus, 2007; Oppenheim, 1992; Wright, 2005).

3.5.1 *Wording and Content*

The survey in this thesis was created following appraisal of the papers identified for use as part of the literature review, which was developed in earlier chapters. Having proposed the initial conceptual model, the survey was considered carefully and was to consist of a number of sections, each of which related to the relevant constructs detailed within the literature (Chapter 2). The constructs identified were motivation, workplace behaviour, spirituality, flow, and commitment, which is a recurrent theme throughout the other topics of interest. To identify the possible relationships amongst the constructs in the model, the most relevant questions were sought out from previous studies.

From the body of existing literature, a number of papers were identified as offering pertinent questioning which would draw reflection from the participants (Bakker, 2008; Bennett and Robinson, 2000; Idler et al., 2003; Rammstedt and John, 2007; Wiley, 1997; Williams and Anderson, 1991). To create a natural, yet unobtrusive, non-coercive appeal to the questionnaire the construct items were formatted into a printable document, which was used in order to get a feel for the flow of completion. The overall

plan was to create something which would have participants willing to complete, as opposed to resulting in non-response. This went on to be tested by means of the test and pilot studies loaded on Survey Monkey.

The sections of the questionnaire were not named with relevance to the construct being investigated, but were given softer terms which was intended to put participants at ease, and encourage full completion. Indeed, the questioning for a number of constructs were grouped into sections of the questionnaire which seemed relevant to the participant, with the additional aim of appealing to a different demographics within the workplace, and to limit possible alienation by use of terms such as "flow" or "workplace behaviour" which may have caused confusion or concern amongst the participants.

3.5.2 Pilot Study

As previously discussed, the pilot test followed an initial test of the online survey to ensure that participants were able to complete the questionnaire in the expected manner i.e. that no more than one option could be selected, that each question had to be answered, etc. Once the test and pilot studies had been completed, it was agreed by the researcher and PhD Supervisors that a time limit for collecting responses be agreed and enforced. The cooperating restaurant groups were made aware that once distributed, the access to the survey via the URL would be closed after ten weeks. This time limit was agreed following a time line which the researcher had created in order to complete the PhD thesis in a timely manner. In the initial 5-6 weeks, daily checks were made to check that respondents were making use of the links. As one may expect, the numbers grew steadily over the first two weeks or so, with a surge in completions over the next four weeks. At the end of the ten week time scale, 1133 respondents had completed the survey.

After the access to survey was closed, the data was left untouched for a further seven days. This was to ensure that no further responses were recorded and that the link had been made redundant properly. As no additional responses were collated, the final data was exported to a Microsoft Excel file, and then imported to the IBM SPSS software, pending checking final responses were correct, completed, and "clean".

Finally, in quantitative research, reliability occurs when a question is answered in the same way on different occasions if given to the same individual. Validity is about

ensuring that a measurement technique measures the concept it is designed to measure (De Vaus, 2007). Face validity describes whether the measure reflects the content of the concept in question (Bryman, 2008). In practice, supervisors and two colleagues were asked to act as judges to determine whether, on the face of it, measures seemed to reflect the concepts concerned. In this study, as the sample population are anonymous, statistical reliability and validity will be tested using Cronbach's Alpha, Average Variance Extracted (AVE), and Composite Reliability tests in SPSS. The nature of these results is described in Chapter 4.

3.6 Research Ethics

The research in this study was guided by ethics prescribed within the School of Management and Languages at Heriot-Watt University and meets, as a requirement of completing research within the university, their regulations in this matter. Prior to the empirical data being collated by means of the initial test survey, ethical approval was confirmed to conduct the data collection process. The Ethics Committee awarded 'full approval', for research which does or doesn't include human or animal subjects within the sample. The data collection was organised over three phases; test sample, pilot sample, and data from the full sample collection.

The organisations whose employees engaged in the research by completing surveys online, had all expressed interest in endorsing and supporting the study prior to any links being distributed amongst staff. However, some of the organisations did notify their wish to remain anonymous. At this point, it was decided that in order to offer fairness across the board, to all Companies taking part, that they would all be treated in the same manner. As the Companies distributed the URL to the Survey Monkey questionnaire, the completion of the survey was assumed as an expression of consent form the individual participants (Dillman, 2000), as the facilitating of potentially 25,000 individual receipts, and matching with corresponding response sets was not feasible during the term of this study.

Before proceeding with the large scale data collection, two trials were carried out. The first included sharing a URL for the survey to ten people within the School of Management and Languages. This purpose of this session was merely to identify any issues within the set-up of the questions. Once minor amendments had been made to the configurations, a larger pilot of 25 participants was completed by a local company

which operates a number of hotel and restaurants in Scotland. Emails were initially exchanged before meeting with the Managing Director and Head of Human Resources, to agree the details of the pilot survey, the intention of the study and overall thesis. Both parties agreed to a) participate, and b) make the URL available to the staff in one of their small properties. The size of property was selected to ensure that the internal aspect to the Company, human resources, and availability of IT/computers, would not become intrusive to the operations of the business and supporting departments. It was agreed prior to working with the individual property and its General Manager that the Managing Director and Head of Human Resources would have access to the basic reports available from Survey Monkey, and that they could be used by the researcher, providing anonymity of the subject organisation, in the future so long as the empirical data was within a reasonable time scale to remain current and valid to its purpose. It was quickly identified that the organisation were using one (office-based) computer to have staff individually complete the online survey.

Due to the Company IT Policy Restrictions, the internet browsing history had to be cleared following any activity in order for the next individual to be enabled access, thus reducing (further) the chance that team members would be able to review the responses of the previous participant. The organisation imposed the protocol that the individual completing the survey would clear the browser history prior to the following attempt to complete.

Confidentiality, having been agreed for the Companies participating in the data collection aspect of the project, was extended to the individual respondents as there was no need to record the individuals' names or contact details for the purpose of this study. To ensure that people would not expend an unreasonable amount of time on the survey, an estimate based on both the test and pilot survey responses was suggested of around ten minutes to complete the survey, via the online method, in its entirety. Again, completion was interpreted as agreement to participate in the data collection. To further validate the ethical nature of this study, the "Seven Sins", of internet surveys, suggested by (Nancarrow et al., 2001), have been discussed in the section "Data Collection Techniques", and applied to this project.

3.7 Choosing Appropriate Statistical Techniques for Hypothesis Testing

This section of the chapter will discuss the essence of data and its features in order to understand the nature of contents collected. There are three sub-sections which will explain normality, homogeneity, and independence of measure and interval data.

3.7.1 Assumptions of Normality

Both the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests can be used to analyse date when the sample demonstrates a normal distribution (Field, 2013; Hair et al., 2010). To test normality of distributions for all of the constructs within the study, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests were carried out. Results from these tests were highly significant, meaning that the sample distribution is significantly different from the data distribution of a normal population (Field, 2013), thus the assumption of normality is violated in all scales. It is, however, to have an incorrect result if researchers have a large sample, of more than 200 responding participants (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2011), in this instance it is more important to look at the shape of the bell curve, which demonstrates the distribution of data; the visual inspection of histograms shows that the shape of distributions does not deviate much from the bell curve of a normal distribution (see Appendix C for examples).

It is therefore advisable to use critical values exposed (Mardia, 1970). The procedure quantifies the departure from normality in the sample and provides an outline of whether the difference in the sample is statistically significant (Arbuckle, 2008; Doornik and Hansen, 2008; Mardia, 1970). It is also important to understand how robust the selected estimation method is against the departure from normality, in order to make use of this information. If the departure from normality is large enough to be significant then the alternative may be that it is small enough to be undisruptive. If the p1 column shows small numbers, they are likely to be seen, however small numbers in the p2 column will point to observations which are unlikely to be far from the centroid under the assumption of normality. The test is based on observations which are furthest from the centroid in AMOS software. In this study, none of the probabilities in column p2 are very small. Thus, there is no evidence that the most unusual observations should be treated as outliers (under the assumption of normality). It is suggested that cases should be removed if both p1 and p2 for Mahalanobis d^2 are .000 (Arbuckle, 2008; Doornik and Hansen, 2008; Mardia, 1970). In the study there was no sample which has a p1=p2=.000. The outcomes of the above tests demonstrate that the data is metric, thus parametric tests were used for subsequent analyses.

3.7.2 Homogeneity

Another assumption made regarding variances when data is fitted to a model relates to the parameters and null hypothesis. Using least squares method, parametric analysis offers the optimal estimate of variance if it is equal across different values of a predictor variable. Null hypothesis significance testing, however, assumes that the variance of an outcome variable is equal across different values of the predictor and, if this is not so, the test is likely to be inaccurate (Field, 2013). To ensure estimates of parameters and significance tests are correct, the researcher must assume homoscedasticity, or homogeneity of variance (Cook and Wall, 1980; Louzada et al., 2014).

Homogeneity means that different groups within the dataset will share variances of other groups within the sample population, with no strange outliers of extreme value. In the case of this thesis, therefore, people from different groups would demonstrate the same variance in response to one question, as the next group would do. For instance, a group may be staff, supervisors, or managers, within the whole sample population. As one may expect results to vary dependent on the question being answered, homogeneity would show that the variance between minimum and maximum response would be the same in one group as it is for the other two. When estimating parameters within linear models, if equality of variance is assumed, then estimates should be optimal when using least squares method.

In order to assess homogeneity of variances, this study has used scales to enable the ranking of levels of agreement or disagreement on a numerical scale. There are a number of different tests available to use, also in SPSS, for the analysis of homogeneity of variances (Pallant, 2011).

In addition, it is possible to use the Levene Test which was offered in 1960 as an alternative to the previous Bartlett Test (Bartlett, 1937; Katz et al., 2009). The Levene Test analyses the data and tests whether the variances within the data set offer scores which are the same for each of any set of groups being used in the sample (Pallant, 2011). If the test is used and the significance (sig.) value is over .05 (for example, 0.06, 0.27, etc.), then the assumption of homogeneity is not validated, and grouped members offer very similar scores amongst each other within the data for a specific question (Katz et al., 2009; Pallant, 2011). Whilst the Bartlett Test is suitable enough to test

homogeneity within data which is normally (or almost normally) distributed, it offers little use for data which is skewed, with the Levene Test being less sensitive to skewed or biased data, and offers less Type 1 errors in the analysis (Conover et al., 1981; Katz et al., 2009). This will be tested in the next chapter in comparing group analysis.

The Levene Test also analyses the equality of variances a part of the t-test. The purpose of the t-test is to identify is to test hypotheses which have been posed by the researcher. It is not failsafe, and can show errors which point toward the wrong conclusion when considering the response to hypotheses in research (Pallant, 2011). If one were to incorrectly reject the null hypothesis, with it in fact being true, it would be considered a Type 1 Error, which happens when considering there to be a difference between groups which does not actually exist. To minimize this occurring, the researcher should select a suitable alpha level, normally of .05 or .01 (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2011). The second error which can be made (a Type 2 Error) occurs when the null hypothesis is not rejected when it is really false. This would suggest that there is no difference between groups, but there actually is! However, the inverse relationship between the two error types means that if trying to limit Type One Errors, essentially there will be an increase in the possibility of Type 2 Errors occurring (Field, 2013; Katz et al., 2009; Pallant, 2011). This will be tested in the next chapter in "comparing group analysis".

Post-hoc (posteriori) comparisons offer the ability to show a number of comparisons and to explore the differences offered by each of the groups within the study. To do this though is a two stage process, starting with the calculation of the F-value, or ratio. This calculation identifies any significant differences between groups in the study, and a significant finding permits the researcher to continue to the next stages of analysis (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2011). Use of any post-hoc analyses helps to safeguard against Type 1 Error, due to the vast number of comparisons being made of the data set, and is completed by setting tighter criterion for significance, which can ultimately make significance harder to achieve. A smaller sample poses further hindrance in achieving significance given that the difference in scores of a smaller group can, in itself, appear to be very large (Gauvain and Lee, 1994; Pallant, 2011). This will be tested in the next chapter in comparing group analysis.

3.7.3 *Independence of Measure and Interval Data*

The assumption of independence poses that errors in the model aren't related to each other. This means that respondents in the study do not confer with one and other when answering questions in the survey. It is understood that the model will be used to predict results based on the responses of those within the sample population, and that there will be some responses which differ from expectation (errors). When respondents do not confer, and give answers independently, then independence is experienced, and the error in one person's set of responses is not influenced by the error in predicting another person's response. Whilst standard error can be calculated by using the associated calculation (figure 3.3) whereby standard error is equal to the standard deviation being divided by the square root of the sample population size, fortunately SPSS offers the ability to run this during analysis tests. The standard error was calculated for each item using the Descriptive Statistics function ((Field, 2013):

$$SE\bar{x} = \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$

Figure 3.2: Standard Error Calculation

However, the above formula is only appropriate if the observations, or responses from participants, are independent. If there is no independence, then there is a risk of violating tests for confidence intervals, and confidence tests in the analysis (Pallant, 2011). The web-based package used (Survey Monkey) in this study relies on internet browser history being cleared prior to the next user entering their responses. To some extent, therefore, two or more people would have to allow sufficient time to complete their responses, and clear the cache and history on their pc, laptop, tablet or smartphone, before another user completed the survey on the same device. However, this does not allow for people to be independent in a situation where they are perhaps using devices next to each other in a workplace. Given that the respondents targeted work in restaurant settings, it is unlikely that they completed the survey together, in the workplace, where it is likely to find that mobile communication devices are forbidden for use due to being in a customer-facing environment, requiring professionalism. Consider now the introduction of Erving Goffman in this thesis to (and how) people entering an institution type setting can be debased, and removed of personal items.

3.8 Defining the Individual Constructs and Single Scale Constructs

As discussed, the data was collected via an online survey which consisted of individual constructs, themselves comprising a number of single scale constructs, used to measure responses from individuals. The Likert rating-scale was used for this having been identified in existing research as a tool which would offer comparison between the possible choices which could be selected (Likert, 1932). The Likert-scale has a large body of existing literature which addresses both its reliability and validity in recording the measurement of attitudes in research (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980; Joy, 2007; Likert, 1932), and is widely used as such within general literature, and also that which is pertinent and used throughout this thesis. In few instances, the wording of the questions was gently edited to simplify the understanding of the question, in order for them to be comprehended by all levels of individual in the sample (Belson, 1981; Oppenheim, 1992).

Likert scales offer respondents the ability to choose a pre-defined level of response along a linear scale for each individual item being measured. The scale has often been referred to as a bipolar scaling method, given that it does not offer a simple affirmative or negative option of response, but a varying degree of whatever response is deemed suitable for the study (Allen and Seaman, 2007). Most studies which make use of a Likert scale may offer a neutral choice, for example where the scale varies from "strongly agree", to "strongly disagree", the neutral choice option would be "neither agree nor disagree" (Armstrong, 1987). However, to avoid distortion or an easy "get-out" for respondents, some surveys may opt to force the individuals' response by removing the neutral option. Further instances of distortion in data can occur, though, if the person completing the survey does not truthfully answer to an extreme value, instead opting for "agree" instead of "strongly agree", or similar (Allen and Seaman, 2007). Along the varying scale, there is no fully identified number of graded values, however either three or five, are deemed to be the most normal to offer (Allen and Seaman, 2007; Armstrong, 1987; Matell and Jacoby, 1971).

Single-item scales are used in research to measure the attribute of constructs (Bergkvist and Rossiter, 2007), as opposed to the alternative of a multiple-item scale (Abdel-Khalek, 2006). Single-item scales do offer the researcher a few advantages, in so much as it is a fairly simple structure to present for data collection which is less likely to result in a stressful or confusing situation for the respondent (Hair et al., 2014; Russell et al., 1989). Along with the simplicity factor, the single-item scale is a more cost-conscious

method of presenting respondents with a survey, and more likely to incite completion (Gorsuch and McFarland, 1972; Hair et al., 2014; Sarstedt and Wilczynski, 2009). Single-item scales create less desire to refuse completion amongst respondents, given the simplicity of their question structure and design (Rossiter, 2002). With limited response options, the single-item scale is arguably fitted to research and data collection when the respondents appreciate the simplicity of what the researcher is trying to draw from them (Bergkvist and Rossiter, 2007; Hair et al., 2014; Rossiter, 2002).

Multiple-item scales have been used since the early 20th century to collate data from respondents in relation to attitudes and behaviours (Bock, 1997; Schiavone, 2011), represented on a numerical Likert scale. This offers a range of response parameters possible to the respondent for each question asked from the corresponding survey (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). As an alternative option to a single-item scale, a multiple item method offers a number of advantages to the researcher (Hair et al., 2014). Constructs within the research can be represented more completely by a set of multiple items and creating groups of items which represent a construct reduces influence of any specific single item. It is also suggested that a model based on multiple-item scale has increased reliability and ability to predict based on sample studied, and a continuous scale in the survey can potentially distinguish more fully amongst respondents, identifying more true traits or behaviours in groups of people (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1978).

Using such scales, it is possible to use identified central tendencies in the results to prove continuous or interval variables, and also to calculate any resulting variances amongst the respondent groups (James et al., 1984). These scales also permit additional analysis by means of factor analysis to identify similar groups, regression modelling, and measuring internal consistency using Cronbach's Alpha (Hair et al., 2014; Tavakol and Dennick, 2011).

Motivation

There has long been an interest in the relationship between people and their workplace, and the measurement of what makes people wish to interact, commit, and complete tasks. Additionally there has been great interest over time of workers subsequent desire to develop their skills and work-rate or personal development within the business or career path they have chosen to enter. The study of motivation has received great

analysis and may attempts made to pin down what makes people commit on a personal and organisational level, what needs must be met, how people can be "encourage" to act positively in the workplace in order to achieve (indeed, over-achieve) work rate and development (Wiley, 1997).

Over the past 60 or so years, numerous surveys have been created in order to analyse the challenge that is employee motivation (Wiley, 1997). From early works, Kovach (1987) collected additional data in order to identify trends over time, and the constructs which truly mattered to people in the workplace, in relation to personal motivation (Kovach, 1980, 1987; Wiley, 1997). The list of measurable items in the survey was used to identify the samples from the contextual setting, and the possibility of individuals becoming stagnant, and deflated in their work, which may have a knock on effect to their levels of immersion and commitment (Wiley, 1997).

Deviant Behaviour

Deviant workplace behaviour is the actualization of individuals (or groups of) violating the normal standard operations of the organisation, thus threatening not only the business overall, but the other members of the workforce (Bennett and Robinson, 2000; Robinson and Bennett, 1995). Deviance is related to motivation, in so much as the act of deviant behaviour in the workplace is a result of a lack of motivation to adhere to the social norms or organisational standards (Kaplan, 1975; Kaplan, 1976).

The moral and community, or workplace, standards are all consistent as part of the organisations normal code of practice, or conduct. There will be both formal and informal standards of behaviour which are expected to be met by all people engaging in the arena, to enable a suitable, safe environment for people to work in, ensuring activities can be completed in order to maintain appropriate levels of productivity, and social well-being in the workplace (Bennett and Robinson, 2000; Duffy et al., 2012).

From an extended study, Bennett and Robinson (2000) identified a list of items based on correlation and variances. As scales should represent a composition of prominently interrelated items (DeVellis, 2012), they identified those which are theoretically within behavioural family groups to be in the subscale used here (Bennett and Robinson, 2000).

Commitment

Since the early 1980's, job satisfaction and organisational commitment have been measured and analysed to identify the relationship between the two constructs (Bateman and Strasser, 1984; Williams and Anderson, 1991). Further studies have identified the relationship between behaviour and job satisfaction, resulting in commitment from employees (Organ and Konovsky, 1989). Building citizenship through commitment in the workplace is achieved by reviewing cognitive parts of job satisfaction, pointing toward the importance of measuring what people value in the workplace (García-Bernal et al., 2005; Henne and Locke, 1985; Williams and Anderson, 1991).

Following the early studies of O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), Williams and Anderson offer suggestion of the single items used. The 12 item scale offers measurement of three different foci of interest to this thesis via collection of data relating to psychological attachment (commitment) of the individual to the organisation through; differing levels of personal compliance, based on reward; commitment by an intrinsic human desire to be affiliated and acknowledged as part of the organisation; or, immersing oneself in identity of aligned values with the organisation (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Williams and Anderson, 1991).

Spirituality

Spirituality demonstrates the belief and caring for other people and it considers a number of additional constructs which enable a level of spirituality to be established. Commitment, forgiveness, and spiritual experiences have previously been used to identify levels of individual spirituality and a connectedness to wellbeing (Cohen et al., 1997; Groen, 2001; Idler et al., 2003; Oxman et al., 1995). From existing literature (of Cohen et al., 1997; Groen, 2001; Oxman et al., 1995) Idler et al. (2003) prepared a 33 item scale nationally representative survey, which was applicable as a self-ranking response method, and has been used accordingly in this thesis to identify the levels of spirituality experienced by the individual respondents.

The scale items used in the thesis for this construct were selected in order to identify the respondents experience between spirituality itself, and the association with their commitment to the people around them. Spirituality, far removed now from its traditional affiliation with religion, can still have many of the similar nuances applied to the workplace, and has been identified as a workplace commitment theory following the

greed bound era of the 1980's, during which people were indeed able to earn vast sums of income from the money markets, trading, and exploitation, however they were also privy to the effects which could diminish inherent personal values (Idler et al., 2003). These items were selected with the purpose of identifying if people working in the sample, were indeed prone to such effects themselves, and whether there was a connection between what motivates them, makes them feel belonging in the workplace, and also whether there is a relationship between these and their levels of commitment.

Flow

Since the inception of Flow by Csikszentmihalyi (1975), researchers have continued to develop methods of identifying ways of identifying aspects of the construct, so that they may be researched empirically, and measured in relation to job satisfaction and commitment (Bakker, 2008; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 1997; Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi, 2002; Petri et al., 2010).

Several earlier studies of flow, and flow-state, made way for Bakker (2008) to argue his Work Related Flow model (WOLF) which identifies three sub-constructs, each comprising a number of single items which permit the measurement of a person's individual flow-state. In other words, Bakker identified a simple scale which would measure how immersed, or fulfilled, on acknowledges being when completing tasks. The benefit of this to the organisation being discussed earlier in the thesis, in relation to seeking additional challenges, developing ones skills, increasing productivity, to name but a few.

3.9 Open-ended Questions

Open-ended questions are used to measure the opinion within a forum, or research sample population. There is general concern, however, that the use of open-ended questions do not necessarily draw the general opinion of the sample, but encourage an articulate response from respondents that are more capable of conveying a message in an eloquent manner (Geer, 1988). One of the benefits of applying this style of questioning to a quantitative survey method is that the participant has been given the ability to be spontaneous and candid during their completion, as opposed to being subjected to a suggestive response, from a limited set of possible answers on a Likert scale (Reja et al., 2003). In alignment with Critical Realism, the addition of this style of

questioning allows further information to be collected by means of openly inquiring about the respondents attitude or views of a topic, or situation (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

The survey was designed with the addition of a set of open-ended questions, which would allow respondents to (anonymously) extend answers with regard to certain aspects of their working life. After consideration, and consultation with the organisation which took part in the pilot study who expressed interest in the ability to draw further information from their staff (which they would do in a later internal survey), the following questions were added to the survey which was used for the study data collection:

1. In what way are you given freedom at work to express yourself for who you really are?
2. Do you feel that you are given fair and flexible breaks at work?
3. In what way are you offered flexibility of your working hours?
4. In what way does your organisation encourage you to work harder?
5. How does your organisation reward you and show their appreciation for you doing your job to the best of your abilities?

Whilst many of the answers could be considered "spoiled", with either little or no information, responses such as "N/A", or the use of foul language in some instances, many of the comments were considered, and will be discussed further in Chapter 4. The common themes have also been separated into responses which promote both a positive and negative attitude towards the organisation, and the way in which the respondent feels they are permitted to act within the constraints of the questions asked.

3.10 Limitations of Study

To access the participants in this study, access to the survey was distributed by the employing organisations Human Resource departments. As the possible number of individuals rose to over 12,500 people across the different companies, the tally of 1133 online surveys resulted in a completion rate of around 9%. It is possible that as anonymity was partially requested, and delivered to all contributing employers, that not all of the staff received access to the survey, thus affecting the overall potential sample size. An additional limitation which may occur is the ability of organisations to use

their knowledge of people within their business(es) in order to pre-select people to complete the survey, in order to show then in a more positive manner. However, as there was no determination from the survey responses as to whom either the individual or organisation was, there is little room to benefit from this approach.

Waitzkin (1993) discusses the nature of quantitative research and suggests that it is not fully useful in describing contextual discourse, and does not offer a full opportunity to vocalise the individual effects of the social arena that the participants are being questioned about (in this case, the workplace). Individuals are privy to a number of micro-level political and economic influences which most probably affect judgement and response, are not fully understood following analysis, as they were not questioned in a qualitative style (Taylor and Trujillo, 2001).

Historically there has been a slight bias toward quantitative research and it has been said that this method has been more affirmative and scientific as opposed to the subsidiary, or complementary, nature of qualitative research which may be applied to the discovery of knowledge (Bockmon and Riemen, 1987; Carr, 1994). However, this is not to say that quantitative methods are not without their inherent limitations in research. The quantitative sampling method requires a random selection of respondents to survey from a larger population of interest which then draws general trends or rules from the observed sample (Carr, 1994; Duffy, 1985), which may only apply to the group data was collected from. In this instance, the data may possibly only apply to the attitudes of employees working within UK Branded Restaurants. Further sampling would be required in other industries to identify if the responses reflect general trends, or only those of people in the sample.

The method of data collection in this thesis required no face-to-face or verbal communication between researcher and respondents, therefore there is a detachment between researcher and respondent (Carr, 1994) which enables focus to remain on the data itself however (Duffy, 1986), it also eliminates the possibility of extending questioning of individual cases should outliers or random variances present themselves (Bryman, 2003). The subsequent data which has been collected forms part of an orderly system for analysis, and is represented by hard numbers which bear meaning dependant on the test adopted via a software package (Spencer, 1983).

4. Analysis of Empirical Material

4.1 Introduction

This chapter will present the main findings as analysed from the survey completed by 1133 respondents which were engaged at time of completion in either full or part time employment in the UK branded restaurant industry. The main focus of this chapter is the analysis of live, current data, and the relationships described in the over-arching model, demonstrating the relationships between Motivation, Spirituality, Deviance, and Flow, with Commitment. A conceptual view that commitment in the workplace is demonstrated by the length of time that people spend in single employment seems a fairly justified one: one finds a job, enjoys it, remains in this employ for a length of time and possibly moves up the corporate hierarchy. However, when introducing the reality of what makes an individual wish to interact and engage with jobs, tasks, and others in the organisation; it is suddenly very complex to gauge what behaviour will be extracted from independent actors in the workplace.

Material presented in the literature review has been combined with the conceptual model, and pointed the direction of initial analysis which itself developed the final analysis and findings, delivered throughout this chapter.

4.1.1 *The Research Subjects*

Before describing the population sample used to collect data from for this study, let us take a moment to remember the purpose of the research. The focus of the study is the relationships between what motivates people in the workplace, and to what end? The thesis examines the nature of employee personal motivation, the feeling of FLOW, and the resultant effect on workplace commitment or, on the dark side, consequential deviant behaviour.

Whilst the full data collection process is discussed in the previous chapter, a synopsis follows: the data was collected from a cross section of staff currently working in UK Branded Restaurants. This included people who work both full and part-time hours, and work in either operational, supervisory, or management roles. The data was collected with the permission of the restaurant organisations involved and, excluded The Restaurant Group Plc staff, as the organisation declined the offer to participate in this study. Two pilot tests collected data: one which collected 10 responses, in order to identify any problems with the survey itself, and the technical operation of the

collection tool used (Survey Monkey). Following a few tweaks required to the website and answer settings, a second pilot collected data from 25 employees with the permission of Portland Hotel Management, a branded Hotelier which also operates a number or restaurants and food operations in their businesses. As this pilot highlighted no issues with the amended setup, the branded restaurant companies were issued with links to the survey.

4.1.2 Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are proposed:

- H_1: Motivation impacts positively FLOW in UK branded restaurant industry staff (to address objective iv)
- H_2: Spirituality impacts positively FLOW in UK branded restaurant industry staff (to address objective iv)
- H_3: Deviance impacts negatively FLOW in UK branded restaurant industry staff (to address objective iv)
- H_4: There is an indirect positive relationship between motivation and commitment, mediated by flow (to address objective v)
- H_5: There is an indirect negative relationship between deviance and commitment, mediated by flow (to address objective v)
- H_6: There is an indirect positive relationship between spirituality and commitment, mediated by flow (to address objective v)
- H_7: Flow positively influences commitment (to address objective vi)

The purpose of the hypotheses was to support the investigation of the aforementioned objectives in the thesis, which are mostly demonstrated by the conceptual model (figure 4.1):

i. To identify and create theoretical underpinning by use of literature the drivers of flow and commitment which affects employees' flow and commitment based on Goffman's theory of Total Institutions within the UK Branded Restaurant industry
ii. To examine the nature of the drivers of flow (including motivation, spirituality, and deviant behaviour) on flow and commitment a sample of employees in UK branded restaurant industry

iii. To examine the nature of flow and commitment among a sample of employees in UK branded restaurant industry

iv. To examine the relationship between the drivers of flow on flow (H_1, H_2, H_3)

v. To examine the indirect relationship between the drivers of flow on commitment (H_4, H_5, H_6)

vi. To examine the relationship between flow and commitment (H_7)

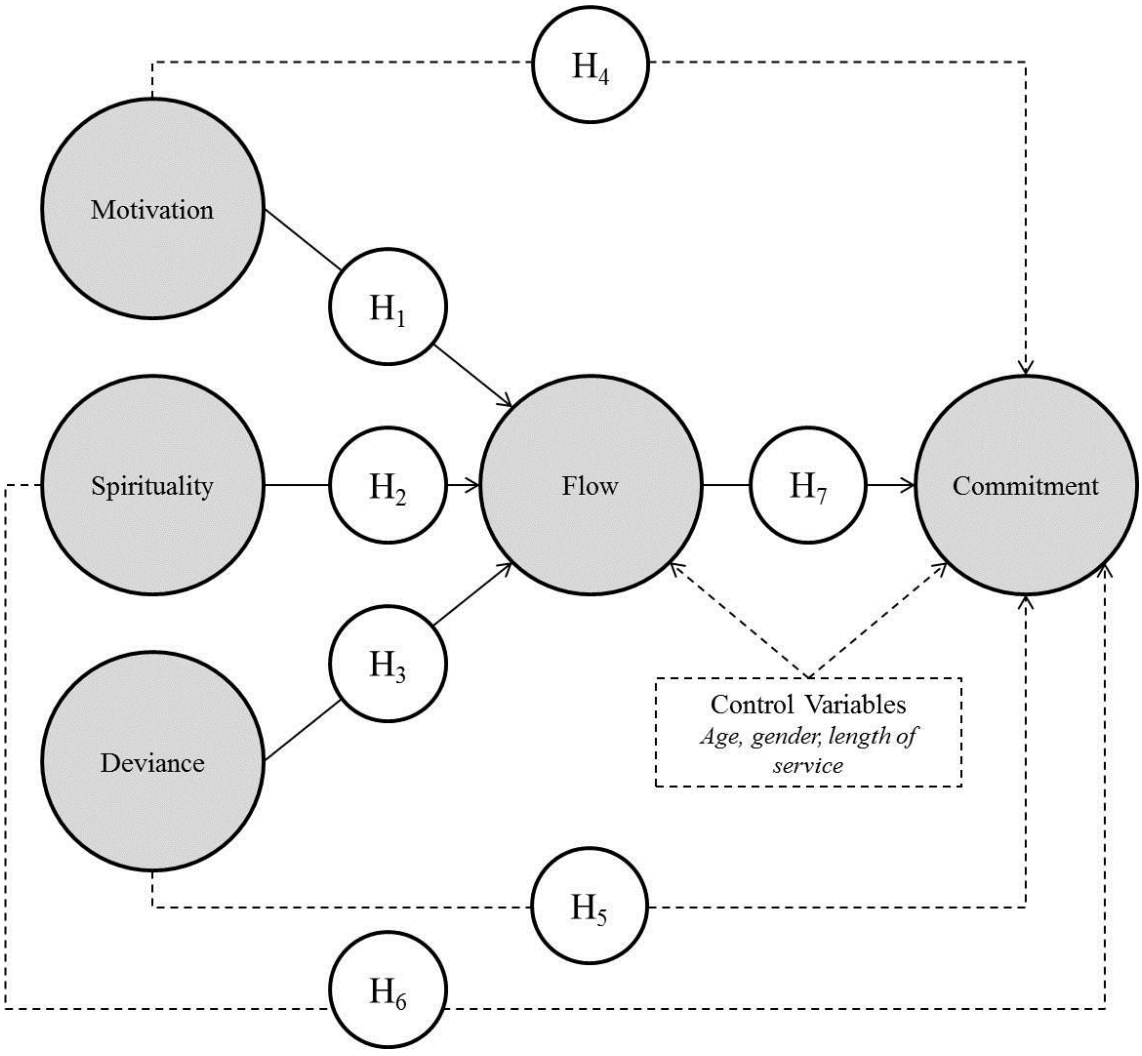

Figure 4.1: Conceptual Model – with hypotheses

4.2 Descriptive and Preliminary Results

4.2.1 *Characteristics of the Sample*

It is predicted that, by the year 2050, the World population will exceed 9 billion people (Alho and Spencer, 2005). Amidst this advanced populace there will be diversity amongst nations, civilizations, peer groups, and friends (Huijts et al., 2014). Population growth and development in the World is demonstrated at different rates both in

developing and industrialised countries (Alho and Spencer, 2005; Tarricone, 2013). Demographics refer to the study of factors which are specific to groups of people and civilizations (Bachrach, 2014). Demographers show interest in measuring information pertaining to individuals within groups; including age, gender, levels of educations, ethnicity, etc. (Caselli and Luy, 2013).

At the time of data collection, the population in this thesis is a sample of employees, working in UK Branded Restaurants. There were 1133 respondents who took part in the study. The respondents ranged from 18 to 58 years of age, of which they had between 1 and 10 years of service with the same employer. The sample was also required to identify which role they were employed in (operational/waiting/bar staff, supervisory role, or manager). Of the 1133 respondents, 773 were in "staff" positions, 224 were supervisors, and the remaining 136 were in management positions in their organisations.

4.2.2 Descriptive Statistics

The data collected from the sample population offered some additional statistical information about the respondents. Whilst anonymity was respected from those within the sample, some data was collected in line with the control variables discussed previously (table 4.1 below):

Table 4.1: Control Variable Descriptive Statistics

Control Variable Descriptive Statistics			
Independent Variable	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
Gender	1128	1.66	.473
Your age group	1128	2.27	.971
How long have you worked with your current employer	1128	1.68	.903

The analysis shows that on the whole 1128 people (99.6%) chose to answer the demographics questions in the survey, with only one person not answering how many people they work with from a team perspective. The mean value for each question shows the average value answered. In respect to Gender, the possible answer was either 1 for male or 2 for female, and the mean value of 1.66 shows that more women than men took part in the survey (male = 33.8%, female = 66.2%). There were four possible options to choose from relating to the respondents age group. In this category the mean value of 2.27 tells us that the average group in the survey was 25-34, with a standard

deviation of .971. The standard deviation for this therefore tells us that people did answer who were either 18-24, or 35-49, but further analysis confirms that nobody answered the survey in the 50+ year old category. Both the age groups and length of service amongst the sample were reviewed and are illustrated below in figures 4.2 and 4.3:

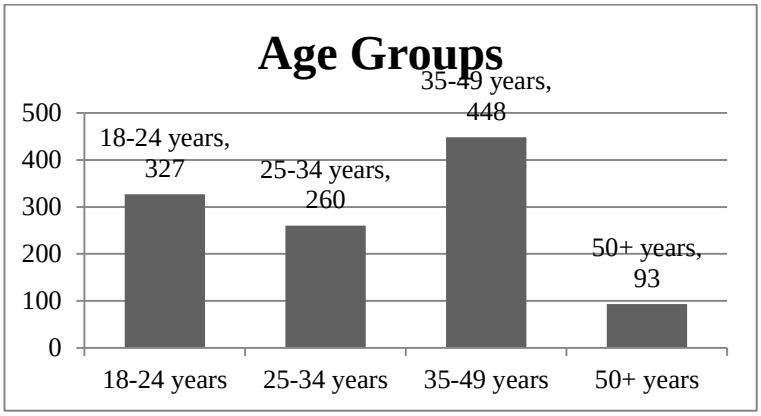

Figure 4.2: Age Groups

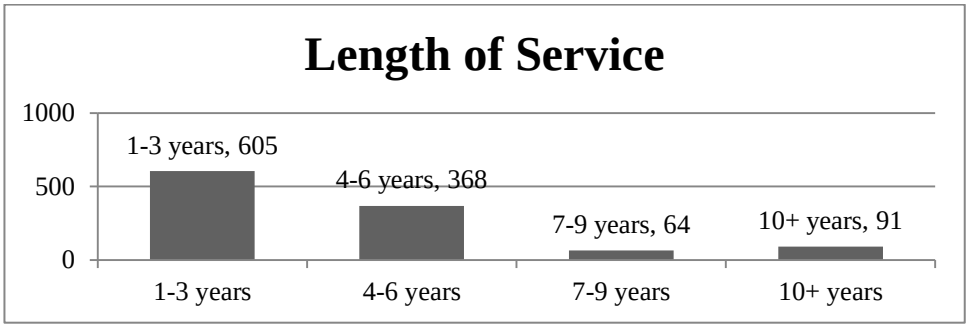

Figure 4.3: Length of Service

The tables show the number of responses for each question, broken down into how many responses were offered to each possible answer (ranging from "Disagree Strongly" to "Agree Strongly", and "Never" to "Daily", on a Likert scale). Both the number of responses to each possible answer, and their percentage of the total are shown. In addition, the tables show the cumulative percentage of the answers on the scale.

Question 1 has a very mixed response rate. It suggests that the participants who responded to the survey are creative, hard workers, who are sociable. Question 2 showed that most of the participants chose "agree" in response to the four items in this part of the survey. This indicates that whilst most participants find their co-workers to

offer a support network, they also find that there is a slight tendency for criticism (32.4% agree) and likelihood that they will be made demands of in the workplace. Throughout the responses to the sub parts of question 3, there are mainly high percentages answering "agree" and "strongly agree", which suggests that, based on the sample, staff required good working conditions, and social connection with their co-workers.

Question 4 shows a pattern of mid-range responses. Most respondents answered either "disagree", "neither agree or disagree", or "agree" throughout this set. The results in the frequency tables show up to 93% of participants answering in this way, with very few showing tendency to offer a stronger feeling in their response. There is very little similarity offered in response throughout question 5, when considering the frequency and percentages throughout the sub questions.

Question 6 has a high percentage of responses throughout the question set which suggests that participants never commit deviant acts in their workplaces, or toward their organisation and co-workers externally. This is subjective and, due to the anonymous nature of the study, limited in perception as there is only assumption that the participants were wholly honest in their responses. Some questions saw up to 94% of the respondents having "never" engaged in acts of deviance. Question 7 had a total of 1132 responses from participants, with one person choosing not to answer the full set. When analysing the questions as a set, there is no clear consistent pattern to the number of responses offered to each of the sub-questions.

4.2.3 *Comparing Groups*

The data was analysed using both independent-samples t-test and analysis of variance (ANOVA) to identify relationships based on the nature of the independent variable. In the case of gender which offers only two possible outcomes of response (male or female) an independent samples t-test analysis was completed. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores for each of the dependent variables asked within question one for males and females. The group statistics identify that the responses of 1128 people (*N*) in the sample were valid (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2011). Where items offered three of more possible responses (the relevant question relating to length of service, and age group), ANOVA was carried out. ANOVA compares the variance of different groups with the variability within each of the groups due to the

independent variable. It is only appropriate to analyse variables which have three or more possible options of choice (Pallant, 2011). Thus, it is not suitable to be carried out to identify variance using gender as a control factor due to their only being two choices: male, or female. When carrying out the test, it is also possible to set criteria in order to evaluate additional statistics, such as homogeneity of data (Levene's test), post-hoc analysis (Tukey), and the outputs will also identify additional results such as the "*F-ratio"* indicated by Welch's *F* indicating the distribution of variances (Field, 2013).
For each of t-tests, the following data was reported:

i. Group Statistics: mean differences
ii. Checking of Assumption: Levene's Test
    Reported: (*F* = ###, *p* = ###) and significance identified
iii. Difference between groups
iv. Eta size to identify power of variance within the dependent variables
    Where equal variance assumed, Eta = $\frac{t^2}{t^2+(N_1+N_2-2)}$

A one-way groups analysis of the variances was conducted to explore the impact of age groups, and length of service in current position of employment, for each of the independent variables in the study. First, the participants were split into groups depending on their age (Group 1: 18-24 years old; Group 2: 25-34 years old; Group 3: 35-49 years old; Group 4: 50 years old and above). The second stage of ANOVA tests involved analysis of variances depending on the length of service the participants have spent in their current positions (Group 1: 1-3 years; Group 2: 4-6 years; Group 3: 7-9 years; Group 4: 10 years or more). Where Levene's test identified assumption of homogeneity being violated (sig. <.05) then the Welch test was used. The results of ANOVA are shown in Appendices D and E, due to the size of outputs.

i. Levene's test for homogeneity
ii. ANOVA f-value/significance level
    (*F* = ###, *p* = ###)
iii. Multiple Comparisons
iv. Eta size = $\frac{sum\ of\ squares\ between\ groups}{total\ sum\ of\ squares}$
    The Eta for ANOVA relates to Cohen's power, where the following assumptions are made:
    Power close to .01 = small effect

Power close to .06 = medium effect

Power close to .14 = large effect

4.2.4 Analysis of Results

Relationships between age, gender, length of service, and Spirituality

The group statistics for question two and its constructs are displayed in the tables below. This section of the survey was used to collate some brief data on individuals' spiritual feeling of the workplace. Table 4.2 shows the mean rating for the items on the spirituality scale. Item Q2_1 and Q2_2 have the highest mean rating on the scale, which suggests that these two items are the most important variables of spirituality. The lowest rating belongs to item Q7_8, which means that this variable is the least important item in the employees spirituality scale.

Table 4.2: Spirituality scale used in this study

Statement/Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
Q2_1 If I was ill, my colleagues would help me	4.11	.987
Q2_2 If I had a personal problem, I could rely on my colleagues for support	3.89	1.142
Q2_3 My colleagues often make demands of me	3.33	1.015
Q2_4 My colleagues are critical of me	2.91	1.130
Q7_1 I believe in faith	3.66	1.280
Q7_2 I believe in a religion	2.91	1.432
Q7_3 I believe in god	3.16	1.454
Q7_4 I think about how my life is part of a larger spiritual force	2.93	1.416
Q7_5 I work together with God as a partner	2.48	1.470
Q7_6 I look to God for strength, support, guidance	2.61	1.532
Q7_7 I feel that God punishes me for my sins or lack of spirituality	2.05	1.524
Q7_8 I wonder whether God has abandoned me	1.77	1.280
Q7_9 I try to make sense of the situation and decide what to do without relying on God	2.80	1.760

Q2_1: If I was ill, my colleagues would help me

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on the participants views of colleague support. With Q2_1 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 60.3, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .14. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for

Group 2 (M = 4.62, SD = .775), was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 3.81, SD = 1.0), Group 3 (M = 4.05, SD = .916) and Group 4 (M = 4.09, SD = .986). When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q2_1, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 46.7, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .11. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 4.05, SD = .890) was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 3.75, SD = .962), Group 2 (M = 3.90, SD = .973), and Group 4 (M = 4.10, SD = .898).

Q2_2: If I had a personal problem, I could rely on my colleagues for support

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on the participants views of colleague support. With Q2_2 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 70.4, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .16. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 4.55, SD = .906), was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 3.56, SD = 1.130), Group 3 (M = 3.61, SD = 1.0148) and Group 4 (M = 3.74, SD = 1.020). When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q2_2, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 50.2, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .12. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 4.37, SD = 1.030) was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 3.47, SD = 1.099), Group 2 (M = 3.68, SD = 1.130), and Group 4 (M = 3.75, SD = 1.018).

Q2_3: My colleagues often make demands of me

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on the participants views of colleague support. With Q2_3 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 43.2, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .10. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 (M = 3.04, SD = 1.078), was significantly different from Group 2 (M = 3.75, SD = .702), Group 3 (M = 3.38, SD = 1.076) and Group 4 (M = 3.55, SD = .969). When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q2_3, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 53.706, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .13. Post-

hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 (M = 2.90, SD = 1.061) was significantly different from Group 2 (M = 3.15, SD = .999), Group 3 (M = 3.74, SD = .808), and Group 4 (M = 3.39, SD = 1.032).

Q2_4: My colleagues are critical of me

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on the participants views of colleague support. With Q2_4 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 86.9, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .19. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 3.61, SD = .851), was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 2.54, SD = 1.109), Group 3 (M = 2.69, SD = 1.082) and Group 4 (M = 2.73, SD = .978). When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q2_4, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 81.9, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .18. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 3.47, SD = 1.005) was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 2.35, SD = 1.051) and Group 2 (M = 2.77, SD = 1.051), and Group 4 (M = 2.58, SD = .948).

The second part of the scale (question 7) of the questionnaire also collected data which allowed the analysis of relationships between age, gender, and length of service with spirituality.

Relationships between age, gender, length of service, and Motivation

This set of questions was used to identify the personal motivation of people entering, and working within, the workplace. Table 4.3 shows the mean rating for the items on the motivation scales. Item Q3_10 and Q3_11 have the highest mean rating on the scale, which suggests that these two items are the most important variables of motivation.

Table 4.3: Personal motivation scale used in this study

Statement/Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
Q3_1 I look for good working conditions	4.12	.611
Q3_2 I like the feeling of social involvement with others at work	4.08	.734
Q3_3 I enjoy being in an environment which	3.91	1.036

requires order and discipline		
Q3_4 I need to feel appreciated for doing my job well	3.85	.855
Q3_5 I feel that I have to be loyal to my colleagues	4.00	.671
Q3_6 I work because I receive good wages	3.14	.947
Q3_7 I look for the ability to increase my earnings	3.96	.775
Q3_8 I am looking for career progression and development opportunities	4.36	.898
Q3_9 Work is an important part of my lifestyle	4.00	.820
Q3_10 Job security is important to me	4.40	.761
Q3_11 Working hours are important to me	4.17	.962

Q3_3: I enjoy being in an environment which requires order and discipline

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on what the participants find important in the workplace. With Q3_3 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 43.2, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was very significant at .21. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 3.54, SD = .998), was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 3.54, SD = .998), Group 3 (M = 3.80, SD = .876) and Group 4 (M = 3.66, SD = .945). When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q3_3, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 78.2, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .17. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 4.43, SD = .890) was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 3.49, SD = .978), Group 2 (M = 3.62, SD = 1.012), and Group 4 (M = 3.66, SD = .878).

Q3_4: I need to feel appreciated for doing my job well

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on what the participants find important in the workplace. With Q3_4 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 64.4, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .15. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 3.38, SD = .686), was significantly different from, Group 1 (M = 4.09, SD = .811), Group 3 (M = 4.05, SD = .950) and Group 4 (M = 3.90, SD = .920). When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q3_4, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 41.1, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .10. Post-hoc

comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 3.52, SD = .819) was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 4.07, SD = .750), Group 2 (M = 4.10, SD = .857), and Group 4 (M = 3.86, SD = .867).

Q3_8: I am looking for career progression and development opportunities

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on what the participants find important in the workplace. With Q3_8 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 50.9, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .12. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 4 (M = 3.75, SD = 1.007), was statistically different from all other groups. Group 1 (M = 4.22, SD = .905) and Group 3 (M = 4.22, SD = .899) scored very similarly to each other. When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q3_8, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 27.1, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .16. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for all groups was statistically different.

Q3_10: Job security is important to me

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on what the participants find important in the workplace. With Q3_10 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 63.6, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .15. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 4.47, SD = .656), was statistically different from all other groups. When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q3_10, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 54, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .13. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 4.72, SD = .625) was significantly different from all other groups: Group 1 (M = 4.09, SD = .695), Group 2 (M = 4.30, SD = .853), Group 4 (M = 4.23, SD = .724).

Q3_11: Working hours are important to me

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on what the participants find important in the workplace. With Q3_11

there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 61.4, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .14. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 4.69, SD = .722), was statistically different from all other groups. When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q3_11, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 46.8, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .11. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 4.56, SD = .834) was significantly different from all other groups.

This set of questions looked for respondents to identify their personal motivations towards the workplace environment which they engage in.

Relationships between age, gender, length of service, and Flow

This set of questions was used to identify the flow of people entering, and working within, the workplace. Table 4.4 shows the mean rating for the items on the flow scales. The lowest rating belongs to item Q4_10, which means that this variable is the least important item in the employees flow scale.

Table 4.4: Flow scale used in this study

Statement/Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
Q4_1 When I am working, I think about nothing else	3.10	1.097
Q4_2 I get carried away by my work	3.13	1.049
Q4_3 When I am working, I forget about everything else around me	2.71	1.009
Q4_4 I am always totally immersed in my work	3.09	.990
Q4_5 My work gives me a good feeling	3.82	.804
Q4_6 I do my work with a lot of enjoyment	3.70	.834
Q4_7 I feel happy during my work	3.50	.838
Q4_8 I feel cheerful when I am working	3.67	.810
Q4_9 I would still do this work, even if I received less pay	2.72	1.163
Q4_10 I find that I also want to work in my free time	2.28	1.270
Q4_11 I work because I enjoy it	3.08	1.111
Q4_12 When I am working on something, I am doing it for myself	2.97	1.073
Q4_13 I get my motivation from work itself, and not the reward for it	3.35	.975

Q4_1: When I am working I think about nothing else

When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q4_1, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 72, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .16. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 3.64, SD = .848) was significantly different from all other groups.

Q4_2: I get carried away by work

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on commitment in the workplace. With Q4_2 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 110.4, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .23. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 2.42, SD = .8535), was statistically different from all other groups.

Q4_4: I am always totally immersed in my work

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on commitment in the workplace. With Q4_4 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 61.7, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .14. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 3.61, SD = .860), was statistically different from all other groups. When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q4_4, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 66.7, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .15. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 3.56, SD = .844) was significantly different from all other groups.

Q4_9: I would still do this work, even if I received less pay

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on commitment in the workplace. With Q4_9 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 42.1, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was fairly significant at .10. Post-

hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 2.19, SD = .700), was statistically different from all other groups.

Q4_10: I find that I also want to work in my free time

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on commitment in the workplace. With Q4_10 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 97.1, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .21. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 1.47, SD = .942), was significantly different from all other groups.

Q4_11: I work because I enjoy it

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on commitment in the workplace. With Q4_11 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 93, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .20. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 2.37, SD = .858), was statistically different from all other groups.

Q4_12: When I am working on something, I am doing it for myself

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on commitment in the workplace. With Q4_12 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 74.2, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .17. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 2.37, SD = .841), was statistically different from all other groups, with Group 4 (M = 2.81, SD = 1.074) also being significantly different from the others. Group 1 (M = 3.32, SD = 1.040) and Group 3 (M = 3.28, SD = 1.031) were both statistically similar in scores. When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q4_12, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 54.5, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite small at .13. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 2.52, SD = .958) was significantly different from all other groups, with Group 4 (M = 2.91, SD = 1.028) also differing from Group 1 (M = 3.37, SD = .966) and Group 2 (M = 3.25, SD = 1.115), which very both very similar

This set of questions looked for respondents to identify their flow towards the workplace environment which they engage in.

Relationships between age, gender, length of service, and Commitment

The questions in this section were used to identify commitment factors from the sample population. Table 4.5 shows the mean rating for the items on the commitment scales. Item Q5_7 and Q5_1 have the highest mean rating on the scale, which suggests that these two items are the most important variables of commitment. The lowest rating belongs to item Q5_10, which means that this variable is the least important item in the employees commitment scale.

Table 4.5: Commitment scale used in this study

Statement/Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
Q5_1 If the values of my organisation were different, I would not be as attached to it	3.80	1.132
Q5_2 Since working here, my personal values have become more similar to the organisation	3.26	1.076
Q5_3 The reason I prefer this company is because of its values and what it stands for	3.68	1.241
Q5_4 My attachment to the company is based on our similarity in values	3.30	1.069
Q5_6 What this organisation stands for is important to me	3.87	1.120
Q5_7 I am proud to tell people that I am part of this organisation	3.99	1.078
Q5_8 I talk up this organisation to friends as a great place to work	3.79	1.174
Q5_9 I feel a sense of ownership for my organisation rather than just being an employee	3.40	1.161
Q5_10 Unless I am rewarded in some way, I see no reason to expend extra effort at work	2.19	1.172
Q5_11 How hard I work is directly linked to how well I am rewarded	2.43	1.053
Q5_12 My private views of my organisation are different to those I display publicly at work	2.36	1.337
Q5_13 In order for me to get rewarded at work, it is necessary to show the “right” attitude	2.99	1.438

Q5_1: If the values of my organisation were different, I would not be as attached to it

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on participant and organisational values. With Q5_1 there was

statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 85.01, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .19. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 4.50, SD = .951), was statistically different from all other groups. When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q5_1, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 68.9, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .16. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 4.35, SD = 1.038) was significantly different from all other groups.

Q5_3: The reason I prefer this company is because of its values and what it stands for

An independent-samples t-test was conducted for Q5_3 to compare the scores of how organisational values affect individual's preference to work there. There was a difference for males (M = 3.09, SD = 1.149) and females (M = 3.94, SD = 1.138; t (689.661) = -5.087). The magnitude of the difference in means (mean difference = -.764, 95% CI: -1.8 to 1.87) was relatively large (eta squared = .08).

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on participant and organisational values. With Q5_3 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 58.8, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .14. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 4.34, SD = .1.147), was statistically different from all other groups. When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q5_3, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 54.2, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .13. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 4.21, SD = 1.201) was significantly different from all other groups.

Q5_5: What this organisation stands for is important to me

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on participant and organisational values. With Q5_5 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 55.5, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite small at .13. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for

Group 2 (M = 4.45, SD = 1.003), was statistically different from all other groups. When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q5_5, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 57.2, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite small at .13. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 4.37, SD = .943) was significantly different from all other groups.

Q5_6: I am proud to tell people that I am part of this organisation

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on participant and organisational values. With Q5_6 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 64.9, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .15. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 4.59, SD = .824), was statistically different from all other groups. When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q5_6, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 52.2, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite small at .12. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 4.44, SD = .944) was significantly different from all other groups.

Q5_7: I talk up this organisation to friends as a great place to work

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on participant and organisational values. With Q5_7 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 69.6, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .16. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 4.46, SD = 1.025), was statistically different from all other groups. When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q5_7, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 52.6, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite small at .12. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 4.29, SD = 1.096) was significantly different from all other groups.

Q5_9: Unless I am rewarded in some way, I see no reason to expend extra effort at work

An independent-samples t-test was conducted for Q5_9 to compare the scores of how participants are motivated to work harder for reward. There was a difference for males (*M* = 2.68, *SD* = 1.193) and females (*M* = 1.93, *SD* = 1.079; *t* (701.261) = 10.300). The magnitude of the difference in means (mean difference = .749 95% *CI*: -1.8 to 1.87) was large (eta squared = .09).

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on participant and organisational values. With Q5_9 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: *F* (3, 1124) = 62.5, *p* = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .14. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 1.56, SD = 1.024), was statistically different from all other groups. When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q5_9, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: *F* (3, 1124) = 73.1, *p* = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .16. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 (M = 2.57, SD = 1.119) and Group 2 (M = 2.70, SD = 1.174), which was statistically different from Group 3 (M = 1.63, SD = 1.015), and Group 4 (M = 2.10, SD = .885).

Q5_11: My private views of my organisation are different to those I display publicly at work

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on participant and organisational values. With Q5_11 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: *F* (3, 1124) = 67.9, *p* = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .15. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 1.61, SD = 1.095), was statistically different from all other groups. When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q5_11, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: *F* (3, 1124) = 61.8, *p* = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite significant at .14. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 1.74, SD = 1.166) was significantly different from all other groups.

Q5_12: In order for me to get rewarded at work, it is necessary to show the "right" attitude

An independent-samples t-test was conducted for Q5_12 to compare the scores of how participants feel they must act in the workplace in order to be rewarded. There was a difference for males (M = 3.61, SD = 1.141) and females (M = 2.68, SD = 1.475; t (951.554) = 11.676). The magnitude of the difference in means (mean difference = .929, 95% CI: -1.8 to 1.87) was large (eta squared = .09).

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on participant and organisational values. With Q5_12 there was statistically significant differences at the p<.05 level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 150, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was very significant at .29. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 1.89, SD = 1.395), was statistically different from all other groups. When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q5_12, there were statistically significant differences at the p<.05 level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 102.7, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was very significant at .22. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 (M = 3.61, SD = 1.036) and Group 2 (M = 3.58, SD = 1.061) were statistically similar, but significantly different from Group 3 (M = 2.19, SD = 1.536), and Group 4 (M = 3.08, SD = 1.218.

Relationships between age, gender, length of service, and Deviance

The section of the survey focused on questions relating to acts of deviant behaviour. Table 4.6 shows the mean rating for the items on the deviance scales. Item Q6_1 and Q6_4 have the highest mean rating on the scale, which suggests that these two items are the most important variables of deviance. The lowest rating belongs to item Q6_5, which means that this variable is the least important item in the employees deviance scale.

Table 4.6: Deviance scale used in this study

Statement/Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
Q6_1 I have spent time on personal matters instead of work for my employer	2.92	1.402
Q6_2 I have taken property from work without permission	1.53	1.065

Q6_3 I daydream and waste time instead of doing my job	2.17	1.403
Q6_4 I have made fun of a colleague at work	2.28	1.425
Q6_5 I have falsified receipts or bills to gain financially at work	1.13	.613
Q6_6 I have said something hurtful to a colleague at work	1.64	.863
Q6_7 I have taken a longer break than I was due to at work	2.18	1.462
Q6_8 I have repeated a gossip that I have heard about my workplace, area, or company	2.21	1.270
Q6_9 I have made an ethnic, racist, or sexist joke at work	1.60	.974
Q6_10 I have come to work late without permission	2.07	1.206
Q6_11 I litter my work environment	1.69	1.054
Q6_12 I have cursed at someone at work (colleague, customer, student)	1.77	1.158
Q6_13 Called in sick when I wasn't	1.60	.921
Q6_14 Discredited my place of work to someone outside it	1.87	1.180
Q6_15 Lost my temper at work	2.02	1.119
Q6_16 Ignored instructions from my manager or superiors	1.58	1.095
Q6_17 Intentionally worked slower than I can	1.78	1.084
Q6_18 Left early without permission	1.74	1.035
Q6_19 Used drugs or alcohol at work	1.14	.646
Q6_20 Dragged out work in order to gain overtime or additional pay	1.39	.761
Q6_21 Left work tasks or duties for someone else to complete	1.46	.941
Q6_22 Repeated a rumour or gossip I have heard about a colleague	1.68	1.141

Q6_1: I have spent time on personal matters instead of work for my employer

An independent-samples t-test was conducted for Q6_1 to compare the scores of how people spend their working time and if it is for personal benefit, or work-based. There was a difference for males (M = 3.49, SD = 1.594) and females (M = 2.63, SD = 1.196; t (604.251) = 9.288). The magnitude of the difference in means (mean difference = .860, 95% CI: -1.8 to 1.87) was relatively large (eta squared = .08).

Q6_3: I daydream and waste time instead of doing my job

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on motivation and deviant behaviour. With Q6_3 there was statistically significant differences at the p<.05 level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 49, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant .12. Post-hoc

comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 1.50, SD = 1.132), was statistically different from all other groups. When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q6_3, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 66.2, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .15. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 2.62, SD = 1.529) and Group 4 (M = 2.30, SD = 1.223) were similar, yet different from the other two groups.

Q6_7: I have taken a longer break than I was due to at work

When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q6_7, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 55.2, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .13. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 (M = 2.50, SD = 1.502) and Group 4 (M = 2.37, SD = 1.325) were statistically similar, yet different from Group 2 (M = 2.79, SD = 1.580) and Group 3 (M = 1.55, SD = 1.116).

Q6_11: I litter my work environment

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on motivation and deviant behaviour. With Q6_11 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 118.5, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was very significant at .24. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 2.43, SD = .902) was statistically different from all other groups. When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q6_11, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 87.7, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was very significant at .19. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 2.25, SD = 1.030) differs significantly from all other groups.

Q6_20: Dragged out work in order to gain overtime or additional pay

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on motivation and deviant behaviour. With Q6_20 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 40.9, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .10. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 (M =

1.53, SD = 1.058) and Group 2 (M = 1.99, SD = .805) differ statistically from Group 2 (M = 1.73, SD = .558) differed from all other groups.

4.3 Common Method Variance (CMV)

Surveys offer important benefits and appeal for examining theorised relationships, for example the ability to generalise the responses of a large sample, over multiple populations (Craighead et al., 2011). However, surveys are also prone to specific problems, such as Common Method Variance (CMV), which demonstrates false correlation arising from engaging the same method of measuring a number of both independent and dependant variables from the same respondent (Craighead et al., 2011; Lindell and Whitney, 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). Since CMV may lead to research analysis leading to incorrect findings, it is important to acknowledge it at this point (Craighead et al., 2011; Howard, 1994; Kline et al., 2000; Rungtusanatham et al., 2003).

There are a number of procedural remedies which were adopted here (Liang et al., 2007; Podsakoff et al., 2003):

1. Respondents were anonymous, and this should have contributed to minimise social desirability bias
2. Respondents were not informed about the research conceptual framework and purpose, which should have contributed to reduce response bias
3. Dependent and independent constructs were placed in difference blocks of the questionnaire, this creating a proximal separation between them
4. The reliance on previously validated scales and the opinion of academics (supervisors, and PhD students) should have contributed to reduce item ambiguity and biased responses

Also, two statistical tests were conducted in order to ascertain the extent of CMV:

1. The Harman single-factor test was used to check whether the majority of the variance can be explained by a single factor. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) on the questionnaire items showed the existence of distinctive factors with the eigenvalue greater than 1.0. These factors account for more than 50% of the total variance
2. A common method factor was introduced to the structure model (Liang et al., 2007). The model was run using the SmartPLS software and was found that all

loadings of the indicators to the common method factor were non-significant. Moreover, the variance of the indicators explained by the corresponding construct of interest was 67.6% while the average method-based variance was 1.2%, yielding a ratio of 56:1. Therefore, CMV is not a concern for this PhD thesis.

4.4 Partial Least Square Method (PLS)

To estimate structural equation models by means of empirical data, researchers can either use covariance-based methods, or the variance-based PLS-SEM approach (Hair et al., 2014; Klarner et al., 2013). The researcher decided to use the PLS-SEM approach for various reasons. PLS has gained importance in marketing and tourism research (Ashill and Jobber, 2014; Bryce et al., 2015; Prayag and Hosany, 2014; Taheri, Jafari, et al., 2014) and was chosen as the method of analysis for this study as it suits predictive application research for a variety of reasons: (1) It is preferable for the early stages of theory building as well as adding new construct(s) that have not received empirical attention previously. This study examines Goffman's theory and relationships between less tested paths; also it is relatively new in tourism and marketing management studies. (2) It enforces less restrictive assumptions about normality (Hair et al., 2014; Liang et al., 2007). "PLS-SEM's statistical properties provide very robust model estimations with data that have normal as well as extremely non-normal (i.e., skewness and/or kurtosis) distributional properties" (Hair et al., 2014: p. 22). For all constructs, different test conducted (see previous chapter) which indicates the assumption of normality is not violated (table 1). (3) It is suitable when the structural model has large numbers of indicators (Fraj et al., 2015; Hair et al., 2014). In this study, our model includes 81 indicators, so it is sensible to use PLS. (4) As such, PLS-SEM meets the challenges faced by hospitality sector researchers who are confronted with an increasing complexity of theories and cause–effect models, over-surveyed respondents and decreasing response rates (Barron, 2008; Prayag and Hosany, 2014). Therefore, PLS is suitable for this study. In this study, the models were tested within SmartPLS 2.0 (beta) software (Ringle et al., 2005) and non-parametric bootstrapping was applied to the 1133 cases (Hair et al., 2014).

4.5 Evaluation of Constructs

4.5.1 *Analysis of Measurement Model*

After checking the variable-to-sample ratio, the researcher followed the procedures suggested for assessing reliability and validity by Hair et al. (2014) and Fornell and Larcker (1981)

Convergent Validity

Convergent validity depends on four criteria: indicator level, composite reliability, Cronbach's alpha, and average variance extracted (table 4.7). Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (Cronbach, 1951) is considered one of the most important pervasive statistics used in research (Cortina, 1993). Cronbach developed alpha as a measure of the internal consistency of a scale or test, and is represented numerically between 0 and 1 (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011). Internal consistency is the extent that all test items measure similar concepts or constructs and is therefore linked to the inter-relation of the test items (Cortina, 1993; Tavakol and Dennick, 2011). Before continuing with a test, it is important to establish internal consistency to identify validity (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011). As a measure, however, Cronbach's Alpha is sensitive to the number of scale items used, and improper use or calculation may lead to a scale or test being wrongly disregarded (Allen and Greenberger, 1980; Green et al., 1977; Tavakol and Dennick, 2011).

However, due to the limitations of Cronbach's Alpha, Composite Reliability is the more appropriate application available to measure internal consistency reliability (Hair et al., 2014). Similarly to Cronbach's Alpha, composite reliability also varies between 0 and 1, however it also accounts for different outer loadings, and is said to estimate true reliability (Novick and Lewis, 1967; Peterson and Kim, 2013; Sijtsma, 2009). Convergent Validity is also used as it indicates how much a measure positively correlates to other measures of the same construct (Hair et al., 2014). It demonstrates that two similar construct measures which should be related, actually are (Campbell and Fiske, 1959; Hair et al., 2014). Thus, measures of one construct should converge with, or share, a high proportion of variance (Hair et al., 2014; Schweizer, 2012) and, in order to establish convergent validity, the outer loading of indicators must also be analysed, in addition to the average variance extracted (AVE). If outer loadings are high, then it is appropriate to consider that indicators have a lot in common (Gefen and Straub, 2005; Hair et al., 2014), this is known as indicator reliability, and should demonstrate highly significant outer loadings. The normal assumption is that standardised outer loadings should be a minimum of .78 (Gefen and Straub, 2005).

It is argued that for reliability to be established, the AVE must be greater than .5, which would subsequently show that the measures share at least half (50%, or 0.5) of variation with latent variables (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Grace and O'Cass, 2004; Gustafsson et al., 2005). AVE refers to an average block of indicators which is identified when communality measures are standardised (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Gustafsson et al., 2005). The grand mean value of squared loadings defines the criterion of the construct associated indicators, thus the AVE must be the same as the constructs communality, and an AVE of .50 or higher will account for more than half of the variance of indicators (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2011; Schweizer, 2012), and less than half of the errors remain than that that of the variance explained by the construct.

The respective constructs had all items loaded, where the value of each was equal to, or higher than, .70. However some of the items were insignificant in each of the constructs (Commitment, Deviance, FLOW, Personal Motivation, and Spirituality), and showed a loading which was lower than .70 (Hair et al., 2014). It is with caution that one considers the omission of any insignificant items, however it is advisable to do so if the resultant growth in AVE and the composite reliability of the scale are both significant (Hair et al., 2014; Henseler et al., 2009). Thus, the model was processed a second time, once the insignificant items were removed.

Table 4.7: Assessment of the Measurement Model

	Constructs and Items	Mean (SD)	Loading	*t*-statistic	ρ_{cr}	α	AVE
	Commitment				.93	.91	.63
	If the values of my organisation were different, I would not be as attached to it	3.80 (1.132)	.71	30.22			
	Since working here, my personal values have become more similar to the organisation	3.26 (1.076)	.72	38.44			
	The reason I prefer this company is because of its values and what it stands for	3.68 (1.241)	.88	86.98			
	My attachment to the company is based on our similarity in values	3.30 (1.069)	.81	66.14			
	What this organisation	3.87	.81	53.96			

	stands for is important to me	(1.120)					
	I am proud to tell people that I am part of this organisation	3.99 (1.078)	.80	62.05			
	I talk up this organisation to friends as a great place to work	3.79 (1.174)	.83	71.24			
	I feel a sense of ownership for my organisation rather than just being an employee	3.40 (1.161)	.73	47.24			
	How hard I work is directly linked to how well I am rewarded	2.43 (1.053)	.73	16.05			
	Deviance				.88	.86	.57
	I have spent time on personal matters instead of work for my employer	2.92 (1.402)	.72	30.27			
	I have taken property from work without permission	1.53 (1.065)	.73	21.36			
	I daydream and waste time instead of doing my job	2.17 (1.403)	.82	66.96			
	I have taken a longer break than I was due to at work	2.18 (1.462)	.78	49.52			
	I have repeated a gossip that I have heard about my workplace, area, or company	2.21 (1.270)	.79	29.22			
	I have come to work late without permission	2.07 (1.203)	.74	17.03			
	Ignored instructions from my manager or superiors	1.58 (1.095)	.77	24.37			
	Intentionally worked slower than I can	1.78 (1.084)	.75	15.36			
	Left work tasks or duties for someone else to complete	1.46 (.941)	.74	21.54			
	Repeated a rumour or gossip I have heard about a colleague	1.68 (1.141)	.76	21.45			
	Flow				.84	.77	.52
	When I am working, I think about nothing else	3.10 (1.097)	.70	31.72			
	I get carried away by my work	3.13 (.990)	.76	37.76			
	My work gives me a good feeling	3.82 (.834)	.75	43.39			
	I feel happy during my work	3.50 (.810)	.71	31.17			
	I feel cheerful when I am	3.67	.70	30.10			

	working	(.975)					
	I would still do this work, even if I received less pay	2.72 (.922)	.70	22.27			
	I find that I also want to work in my free time	2.28 (.811)	.71	12.45			
	When I am working on something, I am doing it for myself	2.97 (.771)	.75	16.11			
	Personal Motivation				.81	.71	.52
	I enjoy being in an environment which requires order and discipline	3.91 (1.036)	.78	41.52			
	I am looking for career progression and development opportunities	4.36 (.898)	.75	23.13			
	Job security is important to me	4.40 (.761)	.76	38.44			
	Working hours are important to me	4.17 (.962)	.70	21.22			
	Spirituality				.93	.90	.76
	I believe in faith	3.66 (1.280)	.89	36.53			
	I believe in a religion	2.91 (1.432)	.90	64.89			
	I believe in god	3.16 (1.454)	.90	42.53			
	I work together with God as a partner	2.48 (1.470)	.80	21.39			
	If I was ill, my colleagues would help me	4.11 (.987)	.72	13.11			
	My colleagues are critical of me	2.91 (1.432)	.76	17.34			

Note: ρcr = composite reliability; α = Cronbach's α; AVE = average variance extracted. T-values for the item loadings to two-tailed test: $t>1.96$ at $p<.05$, $t>2.57$ at $p<.01$, $t>3.29$ at $p<.001$.

Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity tests relationships, or the lack of relationships, amongst dissimilar constructs and measurements (Campbell and Fiske, 1959; Churchill, 1979). It is a widely accepted method for examining the relationships between latent variables and identifying if those items which appear unrelated are, indeed, unrelated (Henseler et al., 2014). It is suggested that discriminant validity exists if any latent variable can account for a greater variance of associated indicator variables, than it has with any of the other constructs in the same path model (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Henseler et al., 2014).

To satisfy the above requirement, the average variance extracted (AVE) of each construct has to be compared to its squared correlations with the models other constructs (Gefen and Straub, 2005; Henseler et al., 2014). The average variance extracted signifies the value of variance explained by a constructs indicator variable, relative to the total variance of indicators (Gefen and Straub, 2005; Henseler et al., 2014; Salekin et al., 2014), thus the AVE is equal to the average squared standardized loading and is also equal to the mean of indicator reliabilities (Henseler et al., 2014). An AVE value of 0.50 or more signifies a construct explaining more than half of the variance of its indicators (Hair et al., 2014). Table 4.7 shows the AVE for this study and, as can be seen along the diagonal of the matrix, the values are all above .50, indicating that the constructs do indeed explain the variances of indicators. Table 4.8 shows the latent variables correlation matrix (discriminant validity).

Table 4.8: Latent Variables Correlation Matrix (Discriminant Validity)

Correlation Matrix					
	1	2	3	4	5
1 Commitment	.80				
2 Deviance	-.36	.75			
3 Flow	.59	-.44	.72		
4 Personal Motivation	.46	-.35	.43	.72	
5 Spirituality	.18	-.17	.14	.24	.87

Note: Square root of average variance extracted (AVE) is shown on the diagonal of the matrix in boldface; inter-construct correlation is shown off the diagonal.

4.5.2 *Analysis of the Structural Model*

Blindfolding Estimates

The researcher used cross validation communality and redundancy indices to assess the quality of the structural model (i.e. blindfolding procedures in SmartPLS) (Chin, 2010; Hair et al., 2014). This is a resampling procedure which determines the significance of paths within the model (Chin, 2010; Lohmöller, 1989), by repeatedly processing until every data point has been omitted and the entire model has been re-estimated . It omits every data point from the endogenous construct indicators then estimates parameters form using the data points that are remaining (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2011; Henseler et al., 2009) The data points which have been omitted during the blindfolding procedure are treated as missing values during the PLS-SEM algorithm, thus using the mean value (Hair et al., 2014; Henseler et al., 2009; Tenenhaus et al., 2005)

The Stone-Geisser test criterion of Q^2 is a test of predictive relevance and part of the soft modelling approach in PLS; it is the blindfolding procedure within Smart PLS (Geisser, 1974; Hair et al., 2014; Stone, 1974). If PLS-SEM shows predictive relevance, then it can accurately estimate the points of indicators in reflective measurement models for endogenous constructs (and endogenous single-item constructs) (Hair et al., 2014). Here, all values of Q^2 are positive which confirms predictive relevance of the model (if $Q^2 > 0$, the model has predictive relevance) (Chin, 2010). Omission distances of 7 and 17 were used, and table 4.9 illustrates the blindfolding estimates, which are shown to be stable.

Table 4.9: Blindfolding Results

			Omission distance = 7		Omission distance = 17	
Construct	Adjusted R^2	R^2	Communality Q^2	Redundancy Q^2	Communality Q^2	Redundancy Q^2
Commitment	.451	.452	.521	.218	.525	.218
Flow	.296	.297	.269	.143	.283	.142
Deviance	n/a	n/a	.327	n/a	.332	n/a
Personal motivation	n/a	n/a	.206	n/a	.223	n/a
Spirituality	n/a	n/a	.603	n/a	.598	n/a

Note: n/a = not applicable.

4.5.3 *Goodness of Fit (GoF) Index*

There are a number of methods of evaluating model performance using statistical techniques (Legates and McCabe, 1999). In this instance, the Goodness of Fit (GoF) index was calculated (Tenenhaus et al., 2005; Wetzels et al., 2009). GoF, derived from Kolmogorov and Smirnov (Massey, 1951), is used to test the models ability to replicate reality (Legates and McCabe, 1999), that is to say, it should identify how closely the sample data matches distributions, as does the population data (Bentler and Bonett, 1980; D'Agostino, 1986). These bounded statistics are most commonly based on Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient (r) or the coefficient of determination (R^2) (Kowalski, 1972), both of which describe the extent of collinearity between the model simulated results, and also those of the observed sample (Legates and McCabe, 1999). There are limitations to both r and R^2, which can inhibit their effectiveness in terms of evaluating the performance of a model (Legates and McCabe, 1999), and can deliver a biased view of model efficiency (Wilmott, 1981, Kessler, 1994). Based on the cut-off criteria proposed by Cohen (1988), the GoF criterion is indexed for small (.10),

medium (.25), and large (.36) effect sizes. The GoF for the model in this research indicates an excellent fit, of .44.

4.5.4 R^2 Values (Explanatory Power)

The R^2 value refers to the coefficient of determination and is used to evaluate the structural model (Hair et al., 2014). It measures the models ability to predict accuracy and is calculated by squaring the correlation of specific endogenous constructs actual and predicted values (Gefen et al., 2000; Hair et al., 2014) R^2 accounts for the variance of endogenous latent variables (Hair et al., 2014) in a structural model. A higher R^2 value means that the latent variables explain more of the construct in a structural model, pointing to it in path model relationships (Gefen et al., 2000; Hair et al., 2014). This is also good news in so far as a higher R^2 value also reflects that the PLS path model is suitable for predicting values of the construct (Dijkstra, 2010; Hair et al., 2014). From analysis of the model, 45% (R^2 = .452) of the variance is explained for commitment, and 30% for flow (R^2 = .297)

4.5.5 Decomposition of Effects

It is possible to use path coefficients to decompose relationships in the model which are exhibited as either indirect or direct effects. Indirect effects are the changes in relationships that are caused by variables which specifically intervene between constructs in the model. The indirect effects describe the proportion of any given effect is caused due to the manipulating of antecedent variables (Alwin and Hauser, 1975; Sobel, 1982). Direct effect is simply part of a variables total effect which is not conveyed by intervening variables (Sobel, 1982).

Having analysed predictive relevance and blindfolding, the relationships amongst all constructs were then tested. Table 4.10 displays the decomposition of effects (direct, indirect, total). Path coefficients that are below .30 causing moderate effects, from .30 to .60 can be classified as strong, and above .60 as very strong (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2000; Donate and Sánchez de Pablo, 2015).

<u>Direct Relationships</u>

Hypothesis 1 identifies that positive motivation experienced by employees creates a positive result of FLOW. One can interpret that respondents who feel motivated, whether individually or as part of a team, and complete work-based tasks will inevitably

experience a level of fulfilment and immerse themselves in the task as opposed to being despondent, and withdrawn from the organisations culture (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975; Fullagar and Kelloway, 2009). Thus, it is important that employers identify what particularly motivates individuals, to gain their immersion and subsequent commitment to their organisation.

The empirical data supporting Hypothesis 2 can be interpreted as confirming that those who do find meaning from their work, workplace, and support networks within (Milliman et al., 2003), do indeed engage themselves more. The findings of the study support the idea that individuals who experience spirituality at any level (personal, workgroup, or organisational) will engage in satisfying work and find fulfilment and FLOW within their chosen career (Jackson and Marsh, 1996).

It is possibly no surprise that deviant behaviour does, based on the findings of this research, have a negative impact on an individual's likelihood to have a positive impact on flow (H_3). It is also understandable that one may expect that those who are capable of any form of deviant behaviour (Appelbaum et al., 2005; Greenberg, 2010; Nair and Bhatnagar, 2011), are not truly committed to the right cause at work. However, that is not to say that these individuals do not experience some form of enjoyment in the workplace. It is possible that people do find some form of fulfilment from acts of deviance, and carry out certain acts which hinder the organisation in search of personal gain and status (Bowles and Gelfand, 2010a; Hollander, 1958).

The terms of H_4 are supported directly in the path model. It is acknowledged and identifies that a positive relationship exists between experiential FLOW and subsequent levels of commitment to a workplace. It would be fair to therefore suggest that in order to achieve commitment from staff members, the employer must first, at length, identify what type of person they are engaging in work activities.

Indirect Relationships and use of Variance Accounted For (VAF)

Where the relationship coefficients are indirectly affected, the inference is that the construct does have an effect on other parts of the model, however the outcome is experienced by means of a pathway in the model which travels via a third construct or intermediary. The PLS-SEM in this study acknowledges three, fully mediated, indirect effect coefficient relationships, all of which have an initial intersect with FLOW. These

indirect relationships demonstrate that the initial constructs all have either a positive or negative direct relationship with FLOW. As the results (table 4) state, the subsequent knock-on effect is also elicited on commitment.

Having calculated the coefficients in the model, it is possible to then examine the VAF for significant indirect effects (Hair et al., 2014; Sarstedt et al., 2014). In a PLS model which has significant indirect effect it is likely that there will be some interest in how much of the direct effect has been absorbed by the mediator, where there is a positive direct effect path (Hair et al., 2014; Helm et al., 2010). In this instance, the positive effect would in turn become smaller. VAF thus determines the size of the coefficient indirect effects in comparison to the total effect (Hair et al., 2014; McDowell and Kessel, 1979). Where VAF is low, one would observe a significant indirect effect which does not absorb any of the effect of the exogenous latent variable on the endogenous variable. VAF can be expected to be <20% (Hair et al., 2014). Where VAF is calculated between 20-80%, VAF can be categorised as partially mediated. And, where VAF is greater than 80%, it is suitable to assume full mediation (Hair et al., 2014; Sarstedt et al., 2014). In this study, the VAF calculated is significant as the value returned is 1.0, as shown below in table 4.10.

$$VAF = \frac{indirect\ effect}{total\ effect}$$

Table 4.10: Structural Model: Decomposition of Effects

Path	Standardised coefficients (*t*-values)			
	Total effects	Direct effects	Indirect effects	VAF
Deviance → Commitment	-.24 (7.47)		-.24 (7.47)	100% (Full Mediation)
Deviance → Flow	-.34 (7.82)	-.34 (7.82)		
Flow → Commitment	.59 (26.83)	.59 (26.83)		
Motivation → Commitment	.29 (8.34)		.29 (8.34)	100% (Full Mediation)
Motivation → Flow	.42 (9.06)	.42 (9.06)		
Spirituality → Commitment	.16 (2.32)		.16 (2.32)	100% (Full Mediation)
Spirituality → Flow	.18 (2.33)	.18 (2.33)		

Note: t-values for the item loadings to two-tailed test: t>1.96 at p<.05, t>2.57 at p<.01, t> 3.29 at p<.001.

4.5.6 Control Variables

The use of control variables in analysis is used to refine observed relationships, with an assumption that they are somehow affecting the relationships of the underlying concepts within the study (Spector and Brannick, 2011). The main feature of control variables is that they are not fully linked with the theories, or concepts, being tested in the model. The role of control variables is often not considered, and they are purely used to create an effect within the constructs. However, in this study, consideration has been given to the change in demographics in the workplace (Huijts et al., 2014), and the development and growth within the UK branded restaurant industry, and there is interest in measuring information pertaining to individuals within groups; including age, gender, levels of education, employee service, ethnicity, etc. (Caselli and Luy, 2013). The chosen control variables (gender, age group, and length of service) are important to the study as they are items which traditionally affect organisations recruitment, retention and ultimately profitability. By identifying an optimum length of service, it is perhaps possible to identify who to recruit, and plan how to develop staff to obtain the best possible service from them throughout their employment. As gender parity is traditionally an issue in the hospitality industry, it was of interest to identify whether there is a difference in the sample between male and female groups for levels amongst the concepts measured (Bagguley, 1990; Kim et al., 2007).

Table 4.11: Results of the Control Variables

Control Variable Relationship	**β**	***t*-value**	**Supported?**	**Hyp.**
Age → Flow	0.132	4.381	Yes	H_7
Gender → Flow	0.158	4.750	Yes	
Length of Service → Flow	0.262	8.230	Yes	
Age → Commitment	0.242	7.125	Yes	
Gender → Commitment	0.251	5.232	Yes	
Length of Service → Commitment	0.087	2.732	Yes	

The study also controlled the effects of respondents' characteristics such as their age, gender, and length of service in current workplace. These are illustrated in table 4.11. All relationships were significant at $t > 1.96$, supporting the hypothesis that the control variables have an effect on flow and commitment. These were further analysed using

independent-samples t-test and ANOVA (section 4.2.4) and will be discussed in the following chapter (Chapter 5).

4.6 Response to Open-ended Questioning

As previously stated (Chapter 3), many of the responses to the open-ended questions did not provide a great insight to the characteristics of the respondents or their feelings toward the employer, due to the quality of information provided. The online tool used to collect the data (Survey Monkey) offers the ability to draw conclusion from summarised responses, which mainly collects key words identified from the 1128 useable items of data collected. The words identified are extremely vague, and could be open to misinterpretation, unless reviewed alongside the 384 pages of typed response given by the participants. Analysis of the full response sets has allowed a general overview to be given, which is detailed (table 4.12) under each of the open-ended questions used. The use of open-ended questioning has yielded useful information which will be considered further in later chapters. However, there are a number of summarised items which point toward concepts which can be assimilated with context where both good and deviant behaviour are likely to be experienced (Ji-Eun, 2012), and also those where positive commitment is more likely to be experienced encouraging retention (Walsh and Taylor, 2007).

The responses have been split into their common themes, following an appraisal of all usable comments made by the participants. Around 38% of the overall answers were "not applicable" (or "N/A"), or left blank. Less than 1% offered profanity such as "it is shit" in response to Question 2, Question 3, and Question 5. These have been disregarded. The reference is assumed to relate to feelings that the participant(s) has (have) toward the employing organisation. However, further qualitative techniques could be applied in the future to gain more detail on (1) what the meaning is, and (2) why they feel the need to respond in this way toward their organisation. Table 4.12 shows the generalised responses to this section of the questionnaire, and the data will be discussed further in Chapter 5 in support of applying Goffman's theory of Institutions to the UK Branded Restaurant Industry.

Table 4.12: Response to open-ended questions

Question	Common Themes
1. In what way are you given freedom	<u>Positive responses</u> • The ability to engage with guests, without following a

at work to express yourself for who you really are?	script, using personality • To speak openly with management; in staff meetings • Ability to amend procedures (ad-hoc) to satisfy guests, so long as they do not infringe greatly on brand standards, or have legislative repercussion
	<u>Negative responses</u> • I am not • Given a uniform and told what to do • If I say what I think, I know that I am being watched in case I say, or do, something else which is not "allowed" • Expected to demonstrate a specific persona to customers • Rigid guidelines - stifling
2. Do you feel that you are given fair and flexible breaks at work?	<u>Positive responses</u> • Yes, most of the time breaks are fair • No specific times, but employer is flexible in allowing breaks when establishment is less busy • I have been allowed extra time if I need to run an errand on my break
	<u>Negative responses</u> • No, there is inequity • Very short breaks: no staff facility • Breaks fit around customers – often work through a normal break, with no time later in shift • Some people are given more flexibility, and abuse this
3. In what way are you offered flexibility of your working hours?	<u>Positive responses</u> • My supervisor/manager is reasonable with this • Shifts are arranged to suit employees where possible, using informal requests diary • I am able to get extra hours when it suits me • Colleagues cover for each other (shift-swap, breaks, etc.) – although favours then build up amongst us all!
	<u>Negative responses</u> • I am not • Shifts are rigid with no flexibility • None – even if you work extra, you are only paid the same salary (Management responses) • "If you don't like it, there's the door"
4. In what way does your organisation encourage you to work harder?	<u>Positive responses</u> • Through performance development reviews • By offering bonuses • Promotion and wage increment • Incentives • Acknowledging staff and their work effort • Managers lead by example
	<u>Negative responses</u> • It worked in reverse – I worked hard last year and my lazy manager got scared so gave me a bad appraisal • Expect it as an obligation for having a job • Pointing to peoples mistakes • No care for individuals, just the financial results

5. How does your organisation reward you and show their appreciation for you doing your job to the best of your abilities?	<u>Positive responses</u> • Bonus • Letter of congratulation • Verbal praise • Progression opportunities • Incentives • Gifts, and Christmas presents
	<u>Negative responses</u> • Don't reward • Normal pay • Haven't noticed if it does/don't know if it does • We don't celebrate reward • None – do as they want you to, or go • None, no appraisal system

4.7 Conclusion and Summary

This chapter analysed the data collected as part of the research project using various statistical techniques including PLS. Whilst all hypotheses are supported, and will be discussed in the following chapter (Chapter 5), there are important findings from the independent-samples t-tests, and ANOVA analysis. Throughout the study, gender parity has been identified from the responses, which suggests a more open mind may be required when recruiting for progression. Length of service has commonly identified a more distinctive response from those in 4-6 years of service, meaning that the initial 1-3 years a person spends within the organisation should be managed proactively to engage staff in the longer term. And, age groups have shown interesting results, suggesting that 35-49 year olds are more positive people for the business. This chapter presents a lot of information, and statistics which can be surveyed at length however, in summary, the main findings have been listed below:

- All hypotheses are supported by the empirical data and subsequent analyses
- There is gender parity throughout the responses, with no significant difference between male and female groups
- Positive relationships are more significant for those with 4-6 years of service in their position
- Positive relationships are more significant for those in the 35-49 year old age bracket
- Analysis of responses has highlighted more significant factors affecting the core concepts of this study: motivation, deviant behaviour, spirituality, and the relationships identified in figure 4.1

5. Discussion and Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will present discussion of the findings from the empirical material analysis in Chapter 4, in line with the research aim and objectives of this thesis. The chapter has been created in sections which will initially outline the overarching context of the thesis, mainly that branded restaurants can be assimilated within Goffman's model of asylums. The next section will discuss the theoretical model in line with the empirical analysis and relation to hypotheses. Following this, there is discussion on the drivers of flow and their influence on flow. The next section will discuss the indirect relationship between the drivers of flow and commitment. The final section will discuss the contribution of the research on the motivational and contextual management literature. As a reminder, the hypotheses and objectives of the thesis are discussed, and can be identified using the conceptual model (figure 4.1). The objectives of this study are:

i. To identify and create theoretical underpinning, by use of literature, the drivers of flow and commitment which affect employees' flow and commitment based on Goffman's theory of Total Institutions within the UK branded restaurant industry
ii. To examine the nature of the drivers of flow (including motivation, spirituality, and deviant behaviour) on flow and commitment within a sample of employees in UK branded restaurant industry
iii. To examine the nature of flow and commitment among a sample of employees in UK branded restaurant industry
iv. To examine the relationship between the drivers of flow on flow (H_1, H_2, H_3)
v. To examine the indirect relationship between the drivers of flow on commitment (H_4, H_5, $H_{6)}$
vi. To examine the relationship between flow and commitment (H_7)

5.2 Goffman (Objective i)

5.2.1 *Goffman's Total Institutions within the UK branded restaurant industry*

The first objective [To identify and create theoretical underpinning, by use of literature, the drivers of flow and commitment which affects employees' flow and commitment based on Goffman's theory of Total Institutions within the UK branded restaurant industry] was discussed in Chapter 2 where a critical review of the literature by Erving

Goffman, and previous studies surrounding his texts, demonstrated a number of concepts which have been summarised in table 2.1, and applied to the industry in table 5.1 (supported by table 4.12). What has become apparent through the study is that there are similarities in the branded restaurant industry which can be applied to the main concepts of Goffman's works in asylums and institutions (Goffman, 1961, 1963, 1966, 1983, 2005; Goffman and Best, 2005), which have implications for operating within the hospitality industry.

Operating a restaurant exposes staff and patrons to continual *social interaction* which creates social cultures within the working environment. Each instance of engagement may have pre-supposed conclusions, which will result in either a positive or negative outcomes. Where a staff member participates appropriately or to brand standards, the outcome should be a happy customer, drawing benefit to the business and hopefully with positive effect on the employee. Goffman's concept of *mortification* can be applied eloquently within the branded sector whereby, at varying levels, the employee will be expected to forgo their own identity and style of clothing to participate in the workplace in some form of uniform (Mouzelis, 1971). Often staff will be left devoid of any personal possessions, and limited in the way in which they wear or colour their hair, the type of shoes that they wear, or perhaps what personal items they are permitted to carry at work, or the types of jewellery that they are permitted to wear. Often in the UK, these may be due to different legislations or company requirements (food safety, health and safety, company brand image rules), but for the participant within this environment, they are expected to play by the rules, unless they wish to receive some form of reprimand, or more serious disciplinary action (Weitz et al., 2012).

The *dramaturgical approach* refers to Goffman's concept of confidence and the manner in which the inmates (in this case operational staff) use their intrinsic personalities to deliver themselves in situations in the workplace. The branded restaurant creates an often false environment which may present an "Italian" theme, or perhaps that of a traditional American burger-joint. The atmosphere created relies heavily on the ability of the staff to step into the role of whatever type of person is required to deliver an "authentic" experience to the customers (Kakavelakis, 2010). To those who find this natural, it is an enabler of success creation. The scripted dialogue that may be required to help engage the customer and make them feel that they are experiencing what was expected on entry to the business will feel more natural to those in the workplace who

understand the concept being delivered. For the operating organisation, finding people who can step into this role helps them to develop the concept further, and offer the customer what they expect, again and again, no matter which of their properties they may frequent (Dermody, 2002). An example of this could be The Restaurant Group which operates a number of different brands across the UK. Their Chiquito brand relies on those who can step into the more relaxed Mexican Cantina style, or a more formal, 1950s style waiter who feels at ease following the scripted menu and order interaction of the Frankie & Benny's brand. Success, here, is delivered by appraising correctly at the point of entry to employment, and the ability to engage people who have a natural zest for service, and understanding of what the brand stands for (Osman et al., 2014).

Both *power* and *presentation of self* are also demonstrable in industry, and can be aligned with one and other. Power can be used as a control method, whereby how the staff member delivers themselves in the workplace will either attract positive or negative action from the person in charge, normally a line manager or supervisor. It is possible to either play by the rules, or show one's true self (Tannen, 2009). Depending on the nature of the staff member, this is likely to attract different responses from the manager. The study showed that a number of people did feel free to express their true self in the workplace, with a proportion, however, also identifying that if they do not present themselves as expected then they were potentially seen as rule breakers, with the exertion of power being a delivery of "knowing where the door is".

Here, the studies of Goffman and the attributes of a traditional asylum were developed to discuss the behaviours expected of those people within a Total Institution. The literature also prompted consideration of additional situations and organisations which can have similarities with asylums and institutions in the more traditional sense, whereby there are roles played. The roles of workers are likened to those of attendees, and the roles of managers or those in charge are associated with the role of the attendants, or wardens. From Chapter 2.4, it is understood that facets of the hospitality industry (including branded restaurants) engage people to offer repeated service, in a controlled environment.

The critical review of Erving Goffman's literature identified a number of theories which were displayed in table 2.1 (The Works of Erving Goffman). This drew from

Goffman's work and summarised the different contexts which could be applied across other types of operation. This was compounded by the analysis of flow and spirituality questions in the survey, which show the sample to be thorough and imaginative in their approach to work, and find support in their workplace. Also, the qualitative findings acknowledge the positive impact that management attitudes can have on allowing individuals to openly be themselves in order to further immerse in the social culture which comes from working in a restaurant environment (Bowden, 2009).

Table 5.1: Applying Goffman to the UK branded restaurant staff

Theoretical Context	Empirical Content	Industry Application
Social Interaction (Ethnomethodology)	Flow, Spirituality, Open-ended questions	In the UK branded restaurant industry and its staff, Social Interaction can be likened to the engagement between staff and management, or staff and customers, creates social sub-cultures within the workplace. Dependant on the desired outcome of specific interactions, staff will behave differently in order to gain from the situation from either the customer or manager.
Mortification	Motivation, Flow, Deviant Behaviour, Open-ended questions	Staff within a branded restaurant is prescribed with a uniform which should be worn when in the workplace. Branded operations rely on the replication of both service and product, in line with company standards, which offers the customer something which they consciously or unconsciously identify with. It is these standards which become expectations, and have to be delivered in a certain style in order to continue attracting repeat business. The organisation may also inhibit the staff members by dictating what they can and cannot retain on their person e.g. mobile telephone, certain jewellery, etc.
Dramaturgical Approach	Motivation, Flow, Commitment, Open-ended questions	Often, staff members are required to deliver scripted dialogue to customers. This may be part of a sales initiative, or be part of the regular delivery which is a standard to the customers who expect to be asked the same questions, regardless of the reason for their visit to the branded restaurant. This may also be used to create atmosphere in the restaurant, and plays on the customers need to feel as though they not only identify with their surroundings (as they would any of the organisations

		units) but also that they are in some form of comfort zone, and experience what they expect.
Power	Deviant Behaviour, Spirituality, Flow, Open-ended questions	In any manager/staff relationship, the boss figure will regularly exert some form of control, or power, over their subordinates. The need for this can be a regular feature of retaining control in the business; however it can also be used to extort required behaviours from the staff, in order to operate the business more efficiently, or profitably.
Presentation of Self	Motivation, Deviant Behaviour, Open-ended questions	Generally in business, there is the likelihood of reward, or reprimand, depending on the behaviour exhibited. It can be that people genuinely enjoy their role in a branded restaurant, and feel committed through shared values, therefore wish to deliver the service that customer's desire, or expect across all units of a brand. However, some other individuals may wish to be themselves at all times, with disregard to what is required, in order to deliver the prescribed service to customers. It may also be the fact that individuals continually switch their personality on, in order to find some form of success, or reward, in the workplace by ultimately delivering what is required, without fulfilment due to a lack of alignment in vision and values with their organisation.

The explanatory power of the conceptual model is good, with the R^2 value of 45% for commitment and 30% for flow. This indicates that 45% (almost half of the explanatory power) of the overall model was explained by the drivers of flow, and flow. Therefore, it can be argued that this is practical evidence of how much the overarching theoretical model (Goffman's idea and the conceptual model) can be explained by the structural/PLS model. It also indicates that only 30% of the flow construct can be explained by drivers of flow.

The analysis (Chapter 4) of open-ended questioning showed that there was identification of the style of attendant/attendee relationship experienced amongst the sample. This relates to Goffman's literature following his times spent working in asylums, where he was able to identify the interaction between the two groups, and the outcomes of behaviour which would be used either in submission to the authoritative

power, presenting oneself as was deemed fit, and also the penalties inflicted upon the inmates should they decide to "act out" in order to gain attention (Goffman, 1961, 1983, 2005). Whilst it is fairly unlikely that employees will be put into solitary confinement, many in the sample acknowledged that if they did not act or present themselves as was deemed appropriate to the standard of their business, they could be made unemployed, with many making note that they are not free to be who they truly are. However, there is also a vast body within the response who claim otherwise, moreover making the researcher think more to the nature and behaviour of the individuals who operate in supervisory and managerial roles; both good and bad people prevail throughout.

5.2.2 *The Drivers of Flow*

The second objective [to examine the nature of the drivers of flow (including motivation, spirituality, and deviant behaviour) on flow and commitment within a sample of employees in UK branded restaurant industry] was about identifying the relationship effects of the key theoretical constructs. The results of SEM-PLS show that there are positive effects from motivation (0.452) and spirituality (0.187), and a negative impact of deviance (-0.317) on Flow.

Motivation

The motivation scale used in the study is shown in table 4.3 and presents the mean scores for each of the items that the respondents were asked to provide their personal feelings about. What is apparent from the analysis is that the most important factors for people being motivated to go to work in the UK branded restaurant industry is the working hours available, which can offer flexibility, and also the security of having a job. The analysis of these questions show moreover that there is a social aspect of work which motivates people to enter and continue to attend, as opposed to the financial compensation for being there.

This suggests that respondents in the sample have a more committed aspect to their motivation.

There is distinction amongst the groups, demonstrated by both the independent samples t-tests, and ANOVA carried out. This further identifies that there is significance for specific sections of the sample relating to the work environment and requirement for

order in the working life. It was the 1-3 year and 7-9 years of service groups, however, that need to feel appreciated for their efforts. This points toward gaining commitment from the two groups, not through financial rewards, but offering acknowledgement of work well done. Furthermore, these two groups also offer responses to Q3_8, and score highly, showing their desire to find career progression and career development. Should these two concepts be combined, then the relationship with flow and commitment would further strengthen. By rewarding the intrinsic needs of the key groups and offering progression where identified, then early and mid-service career workers would benefit the organisation by committing to achieving the goals of the business through an internal want to, which fits with flow literature (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997; Fullagar and Kelloway, 2009; Keller and Landhäußer, 2012).

Spirituality

The spirituality scales used in the study are shown in table 4.4. There were significant findings from all aspects of question two, but question seven did not appear to draw anything of interest as the responses were mainly right in the middle of the scale. Question two shows that there is consensus across the concepts that social culture and relationships with co-workers are important aspects to staff in the industry. The restaurant industry offers a context which (as with other aspects of hospitality) are very different to other industries. There are close bonds created amongst people in the industry, and often these relationships are relied upon; covering each other's shifts, social encounters with staff and customers.

The scores from the analysis are encouraging, and demonstrate that the sample associate their workplace being supportive and colleagues able to be relied on in times of need. Spirituality appears to be strong amongst the respondents in the sample population, and this, based on findings from literature, helps to create an environment which is likely to experience flow (Krishnakumar and Neck, 2002; Mitroff and Denton, 1999b).

In the industry, these types of spiritual bond help to improve the operations of the business, and cannot be replicated or encouraged by extrinsic motivators (Briskin, 1998). The spiritual aspect of the sample are individual to the respondents, and demonstrate that there are people working within it currently who actually enjoy what they do, and where they do it. This in itself suggests that the organisations who allowed participation in the study have (knowingly, or not) created environments which find

spiritual alignment between themselves and their staff. Furthermore, this enables flow to be realised, reaping the benefits of the concept.

The sense of community created in the industry organisations is shown to therefore create supportive workplaces which, at some level, have created a depth of connection between the workers in the sample (Saks, 2011), thus allowing connectivity between the staff, and their place of work (Ashmos and Duchon, 2000). The belonging which is then felt, assists comfort which instils a desire to complete the work tasks in the restaurant (Milliman et al., 2003; Mitroff and Denton, 1999b; Saks, 2011).

Deviant Behaviour

Deviance in UK branded restaurant industry staff was measured using the scale in table 4.6. The relationship with deviant behaviour on flow and commitment was perhaps unsurprising in that it has a negative effect. Throughout the analysis, it can be seen that there are lower scores as compared to other scales in the study which suggests that those in the sample population who (are likely to) commit deviant acts are few and far between. In fact, the most deviant acts that people admit to are occasionally working on personal matters at work, and making fun of colleagues. As deviance levels vary in their severity (Bennett and Robinson, 2000), there is no significant evidence of this occurring within the sample. Given the nature and strength of relationships between motivation and spirituality with flow, it could be expected that there were very low expressions in a concept which would have a negative relationship.

The group comparisons analysis of deviant behaviour shows interestingly that the 4-6 year LOS group scores significantly lower when asked about wasting time during tasks. This prompts that further consideration be made of their commitment and immersion in work based tasks. Their immersion in tasks shows a stronger link to flow in the workplace, which may be autotelic in its nature; the benefits of this being that it aids progression and skills development intrinsically, as opposed to requiring some form of external motivator being applied. In addition, there appears to be a higher commitment to work practices from the youngest (18-24 year old) age group as they are least likely to be prone to making work tasks last longer than necessary in order to gain additional payment through extending their working time, or overtime payment.

5.2.3 *The Nature of Flow and Commitment*

The aim of objective three [to examine the nature of flow and commitment among a sample of employees in UK branded restaurant industry] was to examine the nature of flow and commitment among the sample. This was done by analysis the data by means of group comparison using independent samples t-tests and one-way ANOVA. The scales used for measuring flow in the sample are shown in table 4.4, and those for commitment in table 4.5.

Flow

What is interesting in the response to flow questions in the sample is that there is very little association, although reliant on honest self-reporting, with laziness in the groups. This item saw the lowest score, suggesting that the respondents in the sample are hardworking, demonstrating an immersion in their work practices. Those who are immersed in work are more enthusiastic in the workplace and become more engaged with the goings-on around them, which enable intrinsic motivators to encourage energy and imagination in completing what they set out to do (Bakker, 2008; Bakker and Demerouti, 2008), with a positive impact not only on work performance, but also on a greater sense of community in the work environment (Rich et al., 2010).

Previous studies provide a great deal of benefits associated with flow, including the point that when individuals experience it, they drive themselves further (Carpentier et al., 2012; Fullagar and Kelloway, 2009; Keller and Landhäußer, 2012; Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi, 2002). Those who experience flow and spirituality engage naturally, and continually strive to achieve through their belief of what they are doing, and for whom they are doing it (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). It is apparent in everyday life, particularly in the restaurant industry when demonstrated by those who have a natural and very real love of delivering excellent service. Those experiencing flow and spirituality have a need to be part of specific organisations, and will show their gusto for delivering what they do with pride, and finding a need to further immerse themselves in the organisation and its activities, without much due thought or consideration of why they do it (Keller and Landhäußer, 2012). In line with theory, the thesis found a relationship with flow, and subsequently commitment.

Commitment

The sample placed importance on alignment with organisational and individual values, which create a positive effect on commitment (Williams and Anderson, 1991). There is a sense of pride throughout the responses in the commitment scale, with mean scores

and comparisons amongst the groups which demonstrates significant relationships between the staff, their organisation, and what the staff think of the organisation. With aligned values, there is a sense of belonging and loyalty to the organisation and the employees further aid growth through alignment by completing goals which offer value which are similar to their own (Ceja and Navarro, 2012; Fullagar and Kelloway, 2009; Mäkikangas et al., 2010).

As the sample demonstrates an emotional tie to their organisation through belief in the goals and values, they demonstrate commitment through working toward their organisations plan, in the manner that is deemed appropriate or necessary (Becker, 1960; Burmann and Zeplin, 2005). Interestingly, however, the sample scored low on the questions in the scale which relate back to financial reward and remuneration, further demonstrating that the intrinsic wealth achieved from working for an organisation with similar value systems is more important to those working in the industry. The benefit of this is paramount to operators; it is not necessarily important to offer more money, or extra hours, to achieve greatness from the business, it is more important to identify the people who work within it that believe in what you do. The consequences are exciting for the employer; through identifying the correct people at recruitment stages, the benefits of commitment (retention, productivity, attendance, growth and profitability) should be realised.

5.3 Drivers of Flow on Flow (Objective iv)

This objective is about examining the relationships between the drivers of flow on flow. In doing so, the empirical evidence obtained from this study (using three hypotheses) indicates that H_1, H_2, and H_3 are supported.

5.3.1 *Hypothesis 1*

The hypothesis was supported by the empirical data from the sample population, which demonstrates that people, who are indeed motivated in the workplace, are more likely to experience flow, and immerse themselves in the workplace. As is shown in table 4.10 (Chapter 4) that there is a positive direct relationship (.42) between motivation and flow which supports the proposal that motivation has a positive impact, and also demonstrates further that this is experienced by hospitality staff operating in the UK branded restaurant industry. Previous studies (see, for example Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Jackson, 1996; Jackson and Marsh, 1996; Kowal and Fortier, 1999) detail that the

intrinsic levels of motivation are directly related to flow, which suggests that further attention should be paid to the motivating factors that are important to existing staff within the industry, and also those who wish to enter it in order to create a workplace which reaps the benefits of matching individual motivation with the positive features of a flow state.

5.3.2 Hypothesis 2

This hypothesis was fully supported by the results of the empirical data collected, as illustrated by table 4.10 (Chapter 4) which highlights the direct positive relationship between spirituality and flow (.18). It is not only important to identify individuals who have similar values and beliefs to those of the organisation, but to encourage immersion where it is possible, creating flow, and reaping the benefits which employees experiencing flow deliver (Idler et al., 2003). Previous studies on spirituality (see, for example Bell, 2008; Byrne et al., 2011; Dehler and Welsh, 1994; Dik et al., 2008; Exline and Bright, 2011; Idler et al., 2003) tell us that the belief and value systems that drive individuals to commit to specific situations, workplaces, groups, etc., are built intrinsically, similar to the nature of flow engagement. By identifying the values that people have and exhibit, and engaging staff who have alignment between personal and organisational values, it is natural that there is more possibility of flow being experienced.

5.3.3 Hypothesis 3

The results of data analysed from the sample population supports this hypothesis. The empirical data collected from the sample confirms that deviant behaviour does negatively affect flow in hospitality staff in the UK branded restaurants, also supporting the findings of Bennet and Robinson (2000) whereby they find a negative relationship between deviant behaviour and flow. This empirical study produced a negative effect between the two concepts (-.34). Existing deviance literature previous studies identify a number of motivators for engaging in this type of behaviour, however the common theme is to gain more (power, money, physical items), or become better than those in the socio-cultural surrounding (Alias et al., 2012; Ambrose et al., 2002; Becker, 1964, 1997; Bennett and Robinson, 2000; Berry et al., 2007; Hawkins, 1984). This demonstrates negative behaviour which is out of sync with the nature of flow which relies on intrinsic wellbeing, and aligned beliefs, in order to form a mutually beneficial and self-progressing workplace system where positive behaviour catalyses future

development and growth (Keller and Landhäußer, 2012; Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi, 2002).

5.4 Drivers of Flow and Commitment (Objective v)

5.4.1 *Hypothesis 4*

Within the sample, there is full moderation of the indirect relationship between motivation and commitment, mediated by flow (table 4.8), which offers full support of H^4. Existing literature tells us that employee commitment is crucial to the operations of both the employer, and it's constituents (customers, etc.) (Johnson and Yang, 2010). (Johnson and Yang, 2010). Analysis of empirical material in this study further confirms that motivation does have a positive indirect relationship with commitment, when mediated by flow. This reinforces the fact that it is key to identify the correct people when recruiting to fill industry specific roles. The person who can be recognized as being ready to immerse themselves in workplace activities for the reasons which are close to the heart of the organisation (Ceja and Navarro, 2012; Csikszentmihalyi, 1997), is more likely to become engaged in activities because they have a want, or need, to complete them due to their identification (often subconsciously) with the values and beliefs of their employer (Geare et al., 2009). This, in turn sees a natural desire to complete more and more difficult, or demanding aspects of the job through autotelic personality, offering a natural increase in productivity. Furthermore, this allows the organisation to develop their activities and work-rate (Deci et al., 1999), without a constant need to or check on the individuals actions as they are, by this point, immersed in their role (Fullagar and Kelloway, 2009). The knock-on effect, subsequently, is that the organisation is able to focus on further developing other aspects of the core business activities. By spending time engaging the correct type of person at the start of a recruitment process, can save time and money by removing the need to constantly replace and retrain the wrong candidate who is perhaps not the right fit for the organisations culture (Fullagar and Kelloway, 2009; Hofstede et al., 1991).

5.4.2 *Hypothesis 5*

The analysis offers support of H^5, whereby the indirect relationship between deviance and commitment is fully supported, and the concepts mediated at 100% (VAF = 1.0). The cost of deviant behaviour in the service industry is vast (Van Eerde and Peper, 2008), causing damage to businesses, staff, customers, and can also be blamed for the failure of business enterprises. It seems natural that there is a relationship between

deviant behaviour and commitments, given that those demonstrating the traits of deviance are not fully immersed in the aims of their organisation, or do not act in a manner which is true to the needs of their employer. The study supports this and has identified that there are further filters to pinpoint groups in the sample population which demonstrate traits which should be recognized at an early stage, to remove the possibility of this behaviour occurring. It also supports previous studies which show that levels of conscientiousness levels grow with age, and that those respondents with shorter lengths of service are more likely to demonstrate behaviour which can be deemed as deviant, through acts toward the organisation, and co-workers alike (Van Eerde and Peper, 2008). Furthermore, the study findings offer similar results to previous literature, which draws conclusion on an implication for recruitment practices and trends.

5.4.3 *Hypothesis 6*

H^6 is supported by the empirical data which shows that spirituality does have a positive relationship with commitment. Existing literature describes tells us that spirituality can enable successful improvement, by it being embraced throughout the organisation (Briskin, 1998). Organisations which share spiritual alignment in values and belief systems with its staff help foster a caring and passionate environment, whereby the participants can feel a sense of community, encouraging them to commit and be a fuller part of the body of people, and activities carried out within the workplace, whilst retaining a work-life balance (Groen, 2001). Flow creates a workplace that produces a natural development, with participants self-starting, and pushing themselves to further their own development by means of increased levels of achievement (Fullagar and Kelloway, 2009). This, combined with the spiritually enhanced environment, which nurtures greater creativity and risk taking (Krishnakumar and Neck, 2002), helps to develop a place where an aligned employee feels more at home, free to develop their existing abilities, strengthening not only their own performance, but those of the organisation too. The sample has demonstrated that aligned values drive the need to succeed and accomplish, from participants who wish to be part of the organisations processes on a longer term basis (Pfeffer, 2010a, 2010b).

5.5 Flow and Commitment (Objective vi)

The overall purpose of the study draws together with objective six, compounded by H_7. Completing this study had a personal edge, taking years of experience and the desire to

understand why things did and didn't work in practice. As an advocate of developing people who fit within hospitality organisations, there had to be something to add which would help operators in the longer term. By identifying what is important to people working in the industry sector, the study has provided empirical proof that those who are motivated, are not necessarily motivated purely by cash. The open-ended questions which were analysed in chapter 4 (section 4.7, table 4.12) show what matters to staff. Whilst there are a number of negative responses, these should aid operators and their managers to identify areas of their actions and treatment toward staff which may be inhibiting their progress (Ankli and Palliam, 2012). By not retaining good people due to organisational treatment of the staff, the company or brand can attract negative interest. Continually advertising and recruiting people can send out the message that a business is not capable of retaining people and commonly gives the impression that this is not a good place to work. The continual recruitment and training of new staff creates budgetary constraints for training and development, which reduces the finances available to positively develop people through progression, and lessens the ability to makes monies available for further business growth and development (Barrick and Zimmerman, 2009; Barron, 2008).

Perhaps unsurprisingly, the results of the data analysis indicate that experiencing flow in the workplace (in UK branded restaurants) does positively impact commitment. Again, the direct effect is shown in table 4.10 (Chapter 4), where a direct effect is illustrated (.59). This is a key aspect for those who are responsible for operating businesses in the industry as the intrinsic benefits of flow in the workplace are extremely important in order to achieve full immersion in the role played by the employee (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975).

By engaging the correct people, who have values and beliefs that are aligned with those of the organisation, in an environment which is optimized for employees to enter into an autotelic state, which will enable a more efficient and effective relationship between the person, and tasks being completed. The results from empirical material make suggestions to which people within the sample are more likely to commit, and have a subconscious relationship with their organisation, leading them into roles in which they will experience flow, and demonstrate commitment to the employer (Fullagar and Kelloway, 2009; Jackson et al., 2001).

Identifying alignment of core values should be at the forefront of recruitment practices (Brown et al., 2011); engaging those who ultimately wish to work for employers who share beliefs and workplace agenda, in order for both individuals, and businesses alike, to prosper, develop, and grow (Williams and Anderson, 1991). All in all, the empirical evidence obtained from the study indicates that the final hypothesis is supported.

5.6 Control Variables: Age, Gender, and Length of Service

This study further controlled the effect of UK branded restaurant industry employees' characteristic including gender, length of service, and age, on the final endogenous constructs (see table 4.11).

5.6.1 *Age*

Age was found to be significantly related to flow and commitment. This relationship is positive, which implies that age groups should be given consideration when recruiting and developing staff members in the industry. Age literature describes much about the nature, work ethic, and intent of different generational groups. Generation X, those currently within the 35-49 year old age bracket, are described as placing little value on loyalty and commitment to their employer (Festing and Schäfer, 2014; London, 2005; Twenge et al., 2010). However, the 35-49 year old bracket in the study offered responses which were more in line with positive behaviour in the workplace, contrary to what was expected based on previous literature. This prompts thought of the value of people who are identified as being "older", and what they can provide an employer by way of good behaviour, and committed activity. Wiley (1997) and Hyvönen (2009) both elicit broadly similar thoughts to Maslow's work in so far as they identify that individuals (young managers) possess intrinsic needs which should be met. By nurturing people at the right stage in their career, the empirical data confirms the understanding that there is a need to engage people within the organisation at an early stage.

There was no significant difference of the older group (50 years of age and above). Behind this could be the fact that many restaurant activities are highly physical, therefore employees have either left or been promoted outside of normal unit-based roles in the industry, by the time that they reach this age group. It should be noted that only 8% of the respondents were in the 50+ age bracket, and almost 38% were within the 35-49 year old age group.

5.6.2 Gender

Gender was found to be significantly related to flow and commitment constructs within the structural model. The relationships are positive, implying that there are differences between male and female with these constructs. However, grouping statistic shows some interesting results; only some of the items with the flow construct are significant. For instance, item Q2_1 and Q2_2 did significantly differ between male and female which means that females identify more than males the social support networks available from their colleagues within the workplace.

There were also significant differences on the motivation scale for males and females. Q3_2, Q3_3, and Q3_11 shows that female staff within UK branded restaurants again enjoy the social culture experienced in the workplace, and required a higher level of organisation. The final significant question (Q3_11) prompts one to look at working hours available to the female staff. There are many traditional texts which would suggest that flexibility in working hours permit females to arrange their working life around the family unit (Beutell and Wittig-Berman, 2008; Bird et al., 2002; Blomme et al., 2010b; Yukongdi and Benson, 2005). However, in today's changed family composition, it is more possible that females require additional working hours in order to support family units that have sole parents (Bird et al., 2002; Blomme et al., 2010a, 2010b; Bruegel, 1979; Koeber et al., 2012; Lucas, 1997).

The review of literature found that (traditionally) female roles within the industry were either operational, or roles in support departments (Bird et al., 2002; Fagenson, 1993; Yukongdi and Benson, 2005). The results of the analysis suggest that there is very little difference amongst the concepts analysed when using gender as a moderator for those in the sample that are operating within UK branded restaurants. This, in itself, creates a new thinking for those responsible for sourcing new talent, and promoting those who are in existing roles. The glass ceiling effect (Kara et al., 2012; Yukongdi and Benson, 2005) should be broken, with opportunities for senior roles being extended to all potential employees, who are suitable for progression within the organisation. Whilst there is still, no doubt, concern amongst operators that female roles return to the more traditional (fear that at some point in their career a well-developed and invested female workers may wish to have a family) it should be more important to support organisational development and growth, by developing the person who is best for the

job. Both Ryan et al. (2011) and Hoque (1999) support this view, and suggest that operating a business (particularly during times of continued financial uncertainty) requires balance, in order to create satisfaction and commitment. The outcome of a more open recruitment and development platform would aid the growth of this. As personal relationship statuses and composition become more and more diverse, along with changes in maternity and paternity rights, the traditional male=boss role should become less of a forethought in the future.

5.6.3 Length of Service

Length of service was found to be significantly related to flow and commitment. This relationship was positive. Literature explains that the common problem with short-term employment (1-3 years) in the hospitality industry is the lack of knowledge retention and often repetitive or boring nature, of work (DiPietro et al., 2007; Pizam and Ellis, 1999). The effect of length of service on commitment from the sample, indicates that there is an optimum length of service (4-6 years in the same workplace) in which to engage staff in UK branded restaurants. By developing new entrants, through training and engagement in the early years of work (1-3 years of service), it is more likely that people will be retained in the organisation. By meeting the needs of employees, and retaining them through the next three years of service, the organisation becomes stronger, offering a more supportive environment, retaining skills and knowledge, which are pertinent to the ongoing success of the business. By creating longevity within the right groups of staff, the business can build its repeat business through customer retention (Hinkin and Tracey, 2000; Kim et al., 2003), creating a talented team which can then be used to repeat the model, perhaps during periods of growth with new opening restaurants, or entering new markets. By carefully appraising business needs in line with new staff within the business, it is important that organisations align those who wish to commit to the organisation, engaging those who perhaps may engage for 1-3 years of service, and carefully developing and training them to be retained into the next bracket of longevity.

5.7 Contributions of the Study

The following sections will consider the contribution made by the completion of this study, and will be broken down into three subsections; the contribution to theory; the contribution in relation to the contextual setting; and the contribution to management practice. The next section of the chapter will consider the limitations presented by the

study and potential future research projects, based on the findings of the thesis. Finally, the chapter will offer an overall conclusion.

5.7.1 Contribution to Theory

Goffman's work considers how people experience a process of mortification, which aligns with the data collated from respondents in this study. However, he does not consider the way in which people's behaviour is further affected by their presence in the organisation, Goffman's scrutiny of organisational and institutional contexts is contingent on the implicit assumption that, following a transition into the institution, which is characterised by specific and observable processes, inmates/members are now 'institutionalised' and will perform according to that state. There is a further assumption that the longer a length of service, the more engaged with the work processes one becomes due to alignment of values with the organisation and work. Nevertheless, the data shows there is an optimum length of service (4-6 years) in relation to the relevant relationships with Flow and Commitment. People stay with an employer longer than this; Cunliffe and Boje (2004) identify that when an employee engages in a scripted process over a long period of time, they become more capable of thinking ahead and altering their behaviour in order to secure future benefits.

There is also the suggestion that the person in the workplace becomes part of the process itself, removing their sense of identity and merely becoming an automated part of service delivery itself. Through time and adherence to the prescribed behaviour and actions required of a branded operator, that 'committed' member of staff who may have been experiencing 'flow', has become stripped of their true self-identity in the workplace, and become part of a standard, McDonaldized system wherein they purely act a part in the organisation's wheels of motion; delivering the same thing, every time, and in every place that they operate. This may create security for the customer in their knowing what to expect, but it does not offer a positive response to staff development in a large industry, which is experiencing continued growth in competition from the expansion of existing and new operators.

Whilst there is some existing literature which applies Goffman's theories of asylum and institution to other industries which have rules and regulations to inhibit action (such as boarding schools, the military, etc.), there has been no previous consideration of how it can be applied to the everyday commercial machine which is the restaurant industry.

This study successfully applied Goffman's works to the UK branded restaurant industry, and found links between his key topics, which assimilate practice in the commercial world (these are summarised in table 5.1). The study has shown that although the two contexts are very different (asylums and restaurants), there are fundamental similarities in the operations of each. Both organisations are closed units once people are engaged within them; whilst asylums are ultimately closed off and patients do not have permission to leave until well, the restaurant setting creates boundaries for staff once they enter the business to complete a shift – only permitted to leave once it is deemed acceptable, and their practices for the duration have been completed suitably. Asylums debase inmates by stripping them of personal belongings and often prescribing clothing to be worn; the branded restaurant industry protects its brand image by creating a uniform style which *must* be worn during work times (Karmel, 1969) or, as stated by the participants, there are repercussions which may, ultimately, end in their employment being terminated (formally, or informally, depending on the manager).

The branded restaurant will train staff in standard operating procedures, whereby certain scripts and actions must be followed; the asylum also has operating procedures which inmates should follow. The asylum sees wardens using their power to reward and reprimand their inmates; and the restaurant sees managers using, or sometimes abusing, hierarchical power over staff (Mouzelis, 1971). Again, the participants in this study identify with the fact that they "know where the door is" should they wish to skip, or tailor the service offering to what they see fit.

The analysis also found relationships through extended analysis of the empirical data. Existing literature often finds negative practice and relationships toward women in the hospitality industry (Clegg, 2009; Fine and Sandstrom, 1993; Kolb, 1985). The glass ceiling effect is referred to, whereby women operating in positions still find a negative approach to their progression to senior management roles (Yukongdi and Benson, 2005). The study has found, however, that there is gender parity in responses sets throughout all areas of the survey which would suggests that there should be careful consideration of who to employ and promote, when considering development and strategic planning within businesses. Whilst human resource practices offer formal and legislative rulings for discrimination based on sex, there should be more open-minded, careful consideration of the right person for the job when looking at growing strength,

knowledge, and abilities into operations, to protect them for the future (Hughes and Rog, 2008).

Similarly, the study showed relationships between the theoretical concepts and length of service. The analysis suggests that an optimum time to find positive relationships with commitment is 4-6 years of service in an organisation. It is impossible to simply drop someone into this bracket, without considering what happened to the first three years of employment. It is therefore important for industry operators to consider the importance of retaining and developing staff at an early career stage, in order to extend their work maturity up to six years of service. The industry is prone to employing students who, in certain geographical areas, present a steady stream of opportunity to fill jobs at a lower level (Pfeffer, 1985). The problem with this can be that their knowledge is lost following graduation, and possibly moving out of the area that the business unit is located.

Many operators find that it suits them to repeatedly employ new staff, with little consideration to the long-term effect, as it is a quick response and solution to filling what are normally seen as short-term employment gaps at lower levels, most commonly waiting and bar-tending positions. However, if time is spent strategizing the recruitment and development of seemingly lower level jobs, this continual flow of transient workforce, could be realigned with the creation of future leaders for the business (Kattara et al., 2008). These would be leaders who have entered the operations at a lower level, who have the knowledge of brand standards and what it takes to make a success through their exposure to service delivery, and operating procedures. However, recruitment and selection processing would require appraisal in order to ensure that the right type of people are being selected for jobs, even at the lower entry level positions. This should build strength into the business operations, and help to retain pertinent knowledge (Mäkikangas et al., 2010).

Additionally, the literature surrounding age groups identifies that those who are around 35 years or older (35-49 years) are less likely to commit when compared to their predecessors, the "baby boomers" (Festing and Schäfer, 2014). The empirical material in this study, however, has shown that those of 35-49 years of age display attitudes in their responses which have demonstrated more positive relationships with flow and commitment, than other age groups. This prompts a further review of previous

literature which should be supported with additional data collection in order to assess whether there is a shift in attitude or not.

5.7.2 Contribution to Contextual Studies

This study is contemporary given the current growth and development in the sector (DiPietro, et al., 2007), and has created data which is ripe for further analysis. It has provided a large scale, quantitative overview of the type of people working in the sector, and what lies behind their behaviour in the workplace.

This work offers contemporary understanding, and a foundation for suggesting new and improved work practices to employers, which will be discussed more fully in section 5.7.3. However, the thesis points to reviewing recruitment, training and development, and also the attention paid to how important it is to retain certain types of people in businesses (Arnal et al., 2003). There is a greater need to acknowledge cultural fit, as opposed to just those who can fill a position as they are willing to do the job in order to fulfil the basic need to earn money for whatever reason; Christmas cash, student life, or additional part-time income to pay unexpected bills. The analysis of results in the study strongly support that those who engage due to workplace spirituality, will become more committed, enabling employers to experience the benefit of lower staff turnover rates (Blomme, et al., 2010b). Employing this type of strategy to the management of workforces in branded restaurants will allow the organisation to develop activities at a more strategic level, as opposed to continually recruiting and delivering introductory training, gaining further experience and knowledge through longer-term (4-6 years optimum service) members of staff. In turn, this will strengthen the operators' competitive edge in the market.

There is room to suggest that should practices change, that the industry would be better set for times of economic growth, and further business development (Abreu et al., 2010; Arnal et al., 2003).

5.7.3 Contribution to Management Practice

The thesis contributes to management practice within the UK Branded Restaurant Industry on two levels; from the analysis of the responses, and also the nature of answers provided. In line with the contribution to theory whereby there is a paradox between length of service and commitments in staff through an extended process of

furtive mortification, management need to be aware of the potential side effect which can culminate in a diminished sense of commitment, whilst flow is still being achieved. Ryan, et al. (2011), amongst others (DiPietro et al., 2007; Riley et al., 2002; Robinson and Barron, 2007) discuss the link between length of service and its positive relationship with commitment, however, in this study, it is identified that there is a potential for people to become institutionalised over time. This is demonstrated by the data from Question 4 of the survey, where the responses identify that a sense flow is still relatively high in employees with more than six years' service as demonstrated by the mean ratings (table 4.4, Appendix D) on the flow scale, when analysed using a one-way ANOVA. This suggests that the standard processes in play within the branded environment have an institutionalising effect on staff in line with Goffman's theories whereby the characteristics discussed in literature degrade people within the system. Their sense of a lack of commitment is not necessarily manifested in the work, as they are becoming institutionalised over time which has an effect on the overall customer experience which may become dehumanised, and robotic. The overall implication here for management is that the organisational structure will be negatively affected if employees are to depreciate in value due to waning commitment, instead of appreciating over time.

There are also key concepts which have emerged including the effect of both length of service and age group, and gender parity within the responses. Analysing the effect of length of service has shown interesting results so far as the time a manager should expect their talent to stay with them. More often than not, many part-time roles are seen as just that and filled with people who are likely to be transient and non-committal in their needs fulfilment; such as students looking to fund their time through studies (Perkins, 1983). As the 4-6 years of service groups show more commitment, it is important for managers to consider their part-time staff with a view to long term futures. The type of student (or other part-time) worker should be appraised more deeply at the recruitment stage, with a view to their longer term commitment and abilities within the business, with an idea of how they could be structured within the business in the future. If the correct people are identified from day one, then through development, and retention strategies, they would be retained in the business for the further three years whereby the study has shown that they become integrated in the business activities, more likely to experience flow, and commit positively in the operations. This adds

strength of knowledge and experience, allowing the business to develop and grow further (Arnal et al., 2003).

The study also investigated the effect of different age groups on the data and relationships. As opposed to assuming that those in the 18-24 and 25-34 year old groups would be more committed and positive to their positions, with the notion that these people would be at a point in life that they were looking to forge career foundations, it was the older generation of 35-49 year olds who provided the more encouraging responses toward their commitment to an organisation (Arsenault, 2004; Benson and Brown, 2011). To managers, this must cause for an open-minded approach to the abilities and expectations of a different category of people, who bring added life experience, are perhaps more settled in their lifestyle, and who can add a positive attitude to the business and its activities. It can be quite easy to drift into employing younger groups, as they often fall into a category which can find it difficult to obtain employment through a lack of experience, often making them cheaper to hire, therefore having a lesser impact on operating costs (Herzberg, 2003). However, the younger groups are more likely to be transient in their loyalty to an employer, and less focused on their career as might be assumed.

Secondly, the responses propose that there are very few acts of deviance committed within the population sample. This either suggests that perhaps the integrity of staff is underestimated, and those who do commit deviant acts are few and far between; or, the anonymous nature of the study has not worked to its fullest potential, and the survey did not draw entirely honest responses from the participants in the sample. Either way, there is a need to identify the people who portray the correct attitudes at recruitment stages, through an effective scheme which appraises deeper aspects of the candidates' personality and behaviour, in order to find a fit in alignment with organisational values, and development plans for the future (O'Connor, 2005).

5.8 Methodological Review

There are a number of previous pieces of literature which have considered spirituality and its links with flow, commitment, and organisational values. However, most of the existing literature has been based on qualitative study, and have been small scale. This thesis took the literature and some of the research techniques and produced a large scale, quantitative evaluation in a contemporary setting. From the outset, the thought of

applying a quantitative method seemed extremely appealing. Design a survey, send out an email with the URL, and load the data into SPSS for an easy analysis. This was, perhaps, somewhat optimistic. The analysis and review of existing literature required careful selection in order to configure the design of a survey which would both collect data which was of interest to the research, and also make sense to the participants. The survey took some time to get right, with six versions being created before going to the initial version on Survey Monkey. This followed through to the pilot which involved the private organisation, who then suggested adding the open-ended questions, which required additional consideration, and to-ing and fro-ing with the composition and wording of the questions (Belson, 1981).

The Survey Monkey software/website was easy to use, however not very useful in transferring data directly to SPSS, which required exports via Microsoft Excel, then import to SPSS. This required checking 1133 records both ways to ensure that no data had been lost, or transposed during the process. In order to retain the data provided from responses to the open-ended questions, these had to be printed as the online account was due to expire, making them both difficult and timely to analyse. Given the knowledge which comes through the process of completing a project such as this, it would be advisable to consider other automated data collection media, and those which interface directly with analytical software such as SPSS, and perhaps NVivo (or similar) for the analysis of qualitative data.

The use of a survey did exactly what was expected; the data collected was large in scale, and relatively quick to achieve a high volume of responses as compared to trying to achieve a similar quantity of data had a fully qualitative method been employed (Buchanan and Hvizdak, 2009). As Spirituality is concept which has not been widely explored using quantitative methods, another consideration would be to apply a balance of mixed methods. The use of focus groups would be a suggestion to further explore the quantitative findings, by enabling open speech, and to draw emotional response from the participants in a future study. This would not only help to back up the findings of the quantitative data collected, but would also allow for the relationships to be identified between those offering the data, in specific contextual settings (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

In hindsight, whilst the anonymous nature of the study has permitted a high volume of responses to be collected, it has not enabled the researcher to identify trends amongst participants in specific organisations, job roles, age groups, etc. As an analytical tool, further benefit could be drawn from the conceptual model and subsequent research, to be presented to organisations who may have found issues amongst their teams, in relation to the behaviours being demonstrated. The trade-off of a more open approach, whether to large scale or smaller study, on a business unit to business unit level, may be that participants would not offer fully honest responses, in fear of being identified by their employer as negative (Curran et al., 2014). However, this would permit further consideration in line with Goffman's theories of dramaturgy and the presentation of self.

5.9 Limitations and Further Research

The thesis has produced a large scale empirical study which has produced results that have identified interesting suggestions about the nature of people working in the UK branded restaurant industry today. However, there are obvious limitations experienced which open further research opportunities for the future.

As an area of interest, the study focused purely on one sector of the hospitality industry. Having found results which offer interesting proposal to operators and mangers, the study could be extended more broadly to encompass either other specific genres i.e. hotel workers, a multi-faceted study on numerous independent operators, or perhaps extend it to those working in visitor attractions, either on a national or more geographically specific basis. Hospitality ventures support the national and global economies to a very large extent, and further research within the multiple sectors would enable security and also comparison amongst each other. There is also scope to extend the study to entirely separate industries as both a comparison, and review of their current position in relation to people operating within them.

By referring back to Goffman's early works (Goffman, 1961), an ethnographic study within the hospitality sectors would permit a fly-on-the-wall study. This would allow contextually relevant, qualitative data to be collected in a natural setting, whereby the researcher could make observation of the actions and attitudes. The new qualitative data could then be used to further verify the quantitative findings in this thesis. Alternatively, a more structured approach to collecting qualitative data could be used

for the same purpose. However, this would require the loss of anonymity as focus groups and interviews would leave the participants open and their identities known, which may not then permit a freedom for them to respond honestly. There is the possibility that fear of any repercussion from their managers or supervisors could inhibit answering; should their feedback be negative, or perhaps show admission to taking part in deviant acts in the workplace.

In order to further develop the paradoxical concept between time (duration) spent in the workplace, and its' effect on employee commitment, it would be useful to partially re-create this study in line with an analysis of literal duration spent in the workplace. Now, this would be a large project which would require a lengthy review of people who have worked with their organisation for up to nine years or more. Whilst it would be possible to collate data from participants, for this to be reliable, the researcher would need access to payroll information, detailing hours and shifts worked over a number of years. This data would then be analysed alongside parts of the quantitative study used to produce this thesis.

It would also be useful to draw attention to managers and supervisors within operations, to identify what they find important from their staff and present results of this thesis to them, showing what has been identified as important to staff members. A study and analysis of organisation specific responses to a smaller survey with open-ended questions, in parallel with management focus groups, would demonstrate where any problematic areas lie, and how they could be resolved by using the open style of questioning from their staff. The aim of such a study would require access to organisations, and their people, which are experiencing high poor levels of staff retention, and perhaps demotivated teams. In turn, any organisations which are operating well, with low levels of staff turnover could be surveyed, and compared with those who have poorer results, and used to create a case study.

5.10 Overall Conclusion

The purpose of completing this doctoral thesis was to provide some sort of contribution. Throughout the previous chapters there has been much reflection, analysis, and discussion, which, combined, have created contributions to theory (section 5.7.1), context (5.7.2). Perhaps most importantly from the researchers' initial view, contributions are made that are both interesting and important for mangers who work in

the UK Branded Restaurant industry (section 5.7.3). The concluding chapter of the study has developed a new, fresh understanding of knowledge, and what was important, or considered more normal before, should be reflected upon differently following its execution.

By reviewing Goffman's works of asylums and institution in order to create an underpinning it has proven that his theory offers characteristics (including boundaries, attitude, and actions) which can be applied to other industries. Whilst the researcher does not pose that restaurants operate identically to asylums, prisons, or boarding schools, there are definite distinguishing factors which align the features of Goffman's institutions with hospitality businesses. Indeed, this concept could be further explored in additional industries, if not to identify similarity, perhaps to evaluate the differences experienced and demonstrated by them. By developing an understanding of how institutions work, and subsequently applying this to the more enjoyable aspect of the service industry, it prompts consideration of the cause and effect of attitude and behaviour of staff within a business. It also suggests consideration of the way in which these people can be motivated and treated during employment.

The thesis has also, in part, dispelled myth. The glass ceiling effect has often been cited as a hidden factor which creates gender inequality. However, the subsequent findings of group comparison suggests that attitudes and behaviours found in the data collected identify gender parity, with no significant differences offered in response from either males or females in the sample population. It also identified key age groups, and significant findings relating to the length of service of employees. These are important aspects to mangers in industry; they prompt change and more progressive thinking from those in charge of employing staff, and help to identify sources of future talent that may aid development of the overall business.

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7. Appendices

Appendix A: Descriptive Statistics – All Questions

Question 1

Descriptive Statistics									
	N	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Reserved	1133	3.47	.038	1.294	1.673	-.174	.073	-1.208	.145
Trusting of others	1133	3.75	.025	.826	.683	-.901	.073	.959	.145
Lazy	1133	1.85	.031	1.046	1.094	1.300	.073	1.197	.145
Relaxed and handles stress well	1133	3.52	.029	.978	.956	-.571	.073	-.107	.145
Few artistic interests or tendencies	1133	2.72	.035	1.187	1.408	.575	.073	-.602	.145
Outgoing and sociable	1133	3.88	.025	.843	.710	-.926	.073	1.680	.145
Tend to find fault with others	1133	3.18	.031	1.041	1.084	-.274	.073	-.727	.145
Does a thorough job	1133	4.38	.023	.789	.622	-1.156	.073	1.445	.145
Gets nervous easily	1133	2.44	.038	1.284	1.648	.455	.073	-.977	.145
Has an active imagination	1133	4.00	.028	.941	.886	-1.126	.073	1.913	.145
Valid N (listwise)	1133								

Appendix B: Descriptive Statistics – Frequency Tables

Question 1

Reserved					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Disagree Strongly	55	4.9	4.9	4.9
	2 Disagree	292	25.8	25.8	30.6
	3 Neither agree or disagree	185	16.3	16.3	47.0
	4 Agree	278	24.5	24.5	71.5
	5 Agree Strongly	310	27.4	27.4	98.9
	0 No Opinion	13	1.1	1.1	100.0
	Total	1133	100.0	100.0	

Trusting of others					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Disagree Strongly	13	1.1	1.1	1.1
	2 Disagree	98	8.6	8.6	9.8
	3 Neither agree or disagree	194	17.1	17.1	26.9
	4 Agree	688	60.7	60.7	87.6
	5 Agree Strongly	139	12.3	12.3	99.9
	0 No Opinion	1	.1	.1	100.0
	Total	1133	100.0	100.0	

Lazy					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Disagree Strongly	536	47.3	47.3	47.3
	2 Disagree	367	32.4	32.4	79.7
	3 Neither agree or disagree	124	10.9	10.9	90.6
	4 Agree	73	6.4	6.4	97.1
	5 Agree Strongly	31	2.7	2.7	99.8
	0 No Opinion	2	.2	.2	100.0
	Total	1133	100.0	100.0	

Relaxed and handles stress well					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Disagree Strongly	32	2.8	2.8	2.8
	2 Disagree	165	14.6	14.6	17.4
	3 Neither agree or disagree	249	22.0	22.0	39.4
	4 Agree	556	49.1	49.1	88.4
	5 Agree Strongly	127	11.2	11.2	99.6

	0 No Opinion	4	.4	.4	100.0
	Total	1133	100.0	100.0	

Few artistic interests or tendencies					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Disagree Strongly	121	10.7	10.7	10.7
	2 Disagree	524	46.2	46.2	56.9
	3 Neither agree or disagree	146	12.9	12.9	69.8
	4 Agree	249	22.0	22.0	91.8
	5 Agree Strongly	82	7.2	7.2	99.0
	0 No Opinion	11	1.0	1.0	100.0
	Total	1133	100.0	100.0	

Outgoing and sociable					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Disagree Strongly	19	1.7	1.7	1.7
	2 Disagree	62	5.5	5.5	7.1
	3 Neither agree or disagree	169	14.9	14.9	22.1
	4 Agree	675	59.6	59.6	81.6
	5 Agree Strongly	200	17.7	17.7	99.3
	0 No Opinion	8	.7	.7	100.0
	Total	1133	100.0	100.0	

Tend to find fault with others					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Disagree Strongly	56	4.9	4.9	4.9
	2 Disagree	294	25.9	25.9	30.9
	3 Neither agree or disagree	235	20.7	20.7	51.6
	4 Agree	494	43.6	43.6	95.2
	5 Agree Strongly	47	4.1	4.1	99.4
	0 No Opinion	7	.6	.6	100.0
	Total	1133	100.0	100.0	

Does a thorough job					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Disagree Strongly	4	.4	.4	.4
	2 Disagree	28	2.5	2.5	2.8
	3 Neither agree or disagree	102	9.0	9.0	11.8
	4 Agree	410	36.2	36.2	48.0

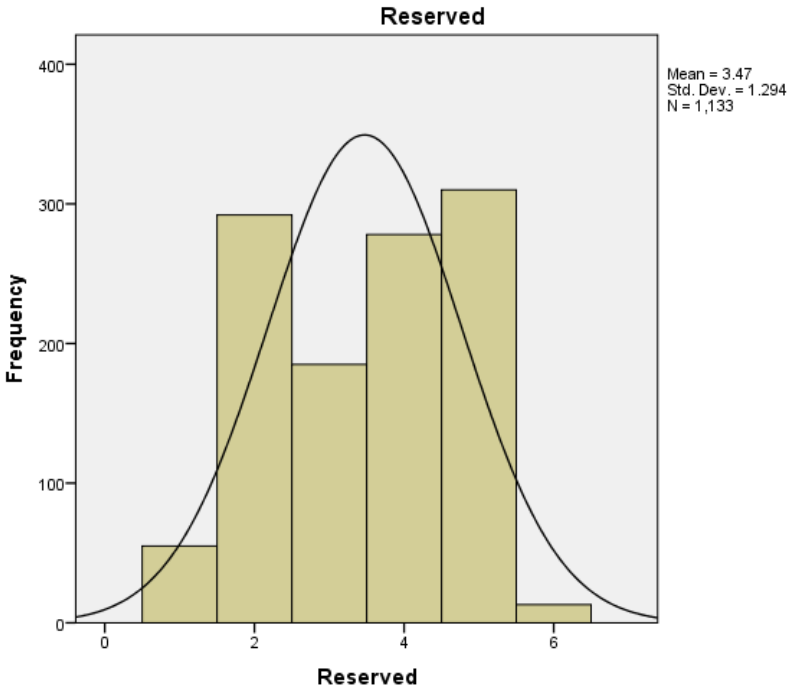
	5 Agree Strongly	580	51.2	51.2	99.2
	0 No Opinion	9	.8	.8	100.0
	Total	1133	100.0	100.0	

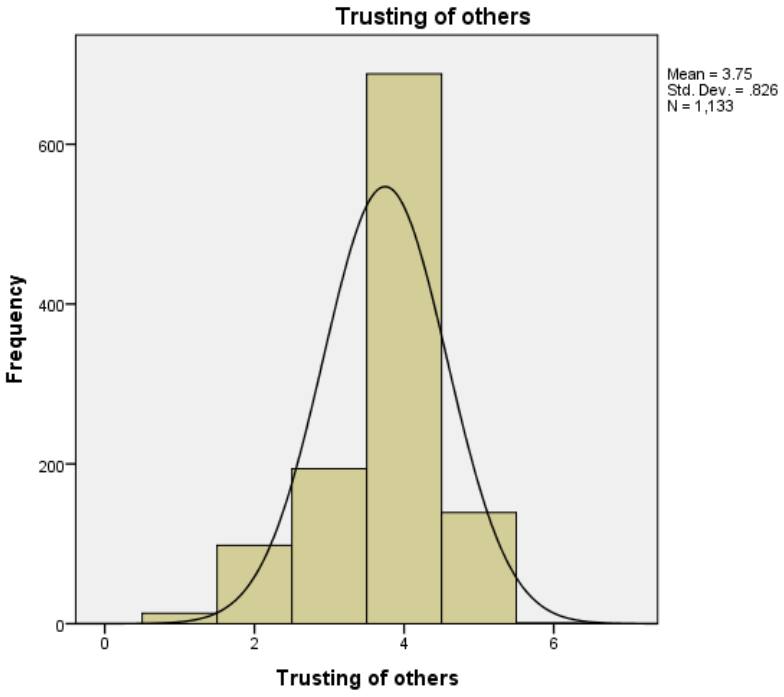
Gets nervous easily					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Disagree Strongly	345	30.5	30.5	30.5
	2 Disagree	310	27.4	27.4	57.8
	3 Neither agree or disagree	184	16.2	16.2	74.1
	4 Agree	220	19.4	19.4	93.5
	5 Agree Strongly	72	6.4	6.4	99.8
	0 No Opinion	2	.2	.2	100.0
	Total	1133	100.0	100.0	

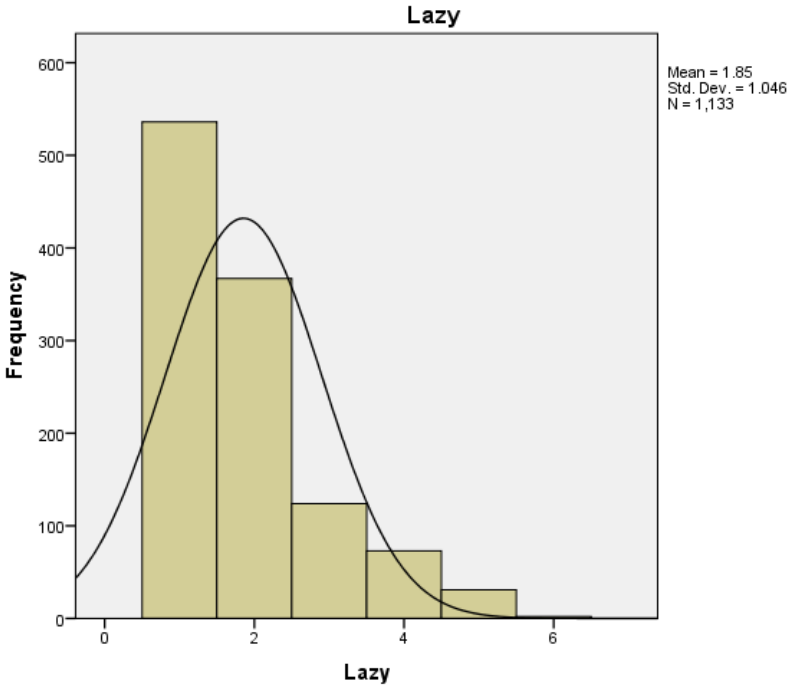
Has an active imagination					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Disagree Strongly	36	3.2	3.2	3.2
	2 Disagree	47	4.1	4.1	7.3
	3 Neither agree or disagree	128	11.3	11.3	18.6
	4 Agree	604	53.3	53.3	71.9
	5 Agree Strongly	303	26.7	26.7	98.7
	0 No Opinion	15	1.3	1.3	100.0
	Total	1133	100.0	100.0	

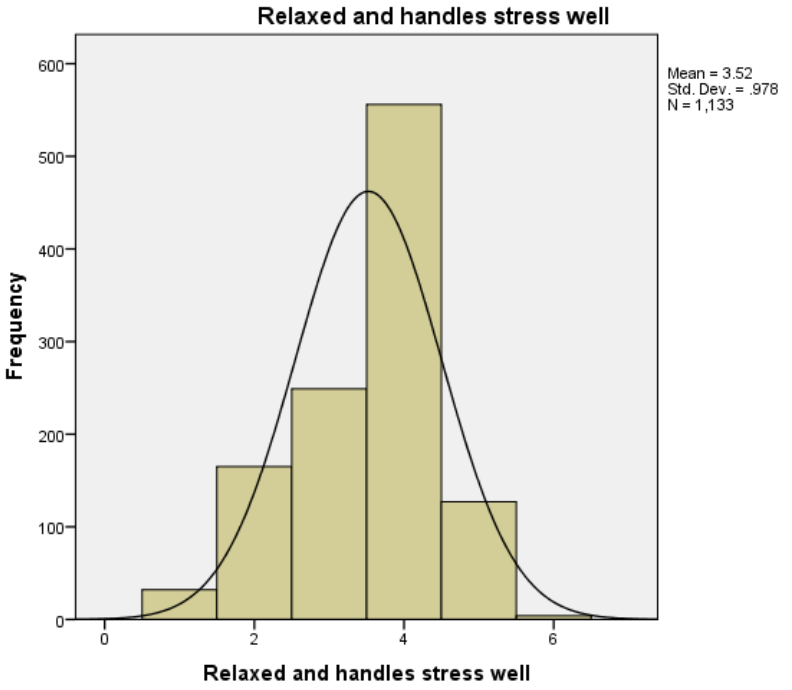
Appendix C: Descriptive Statistics – Histograms

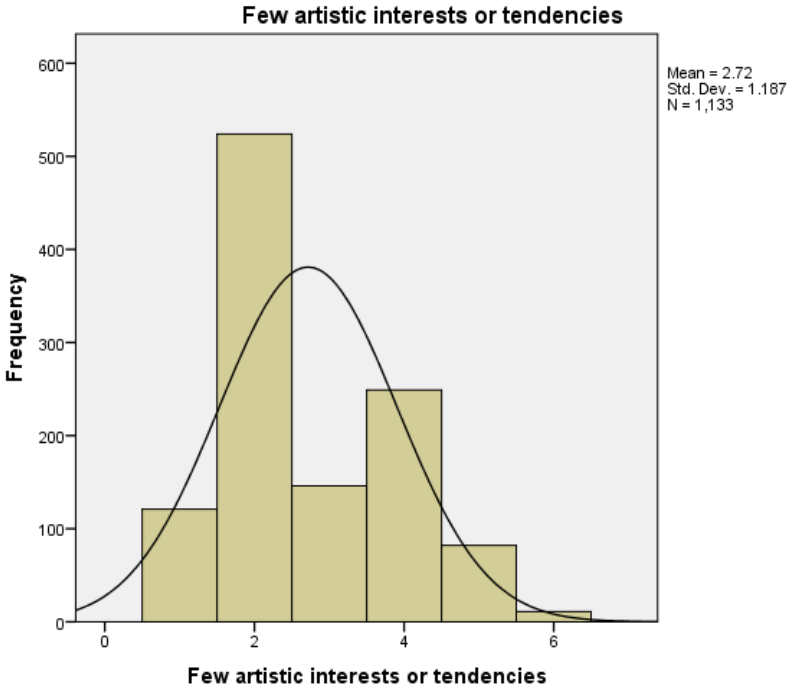
Question 1

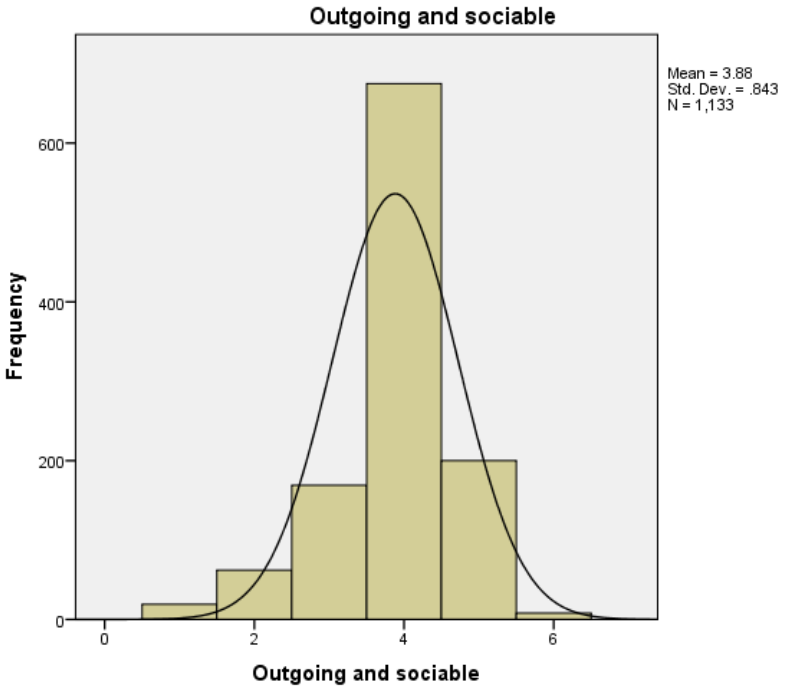


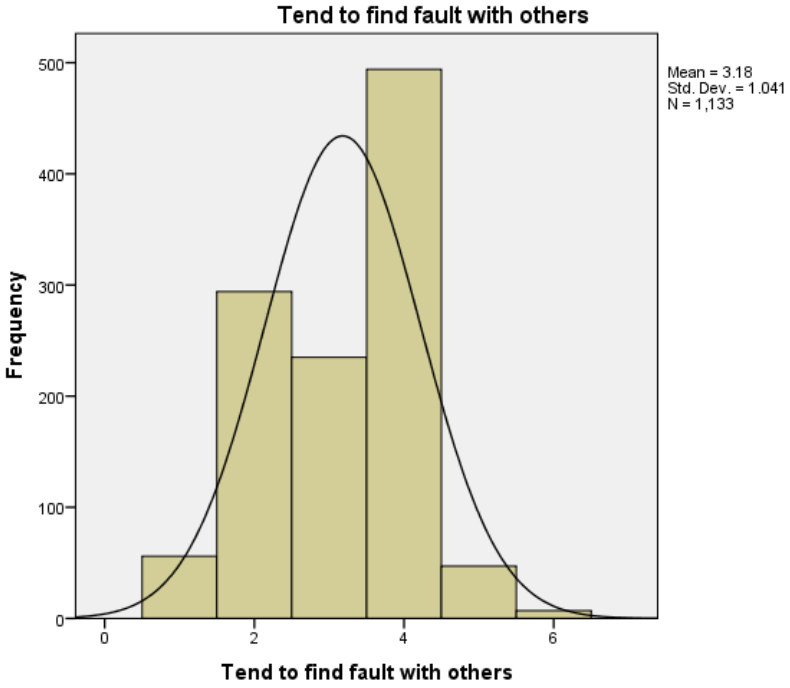


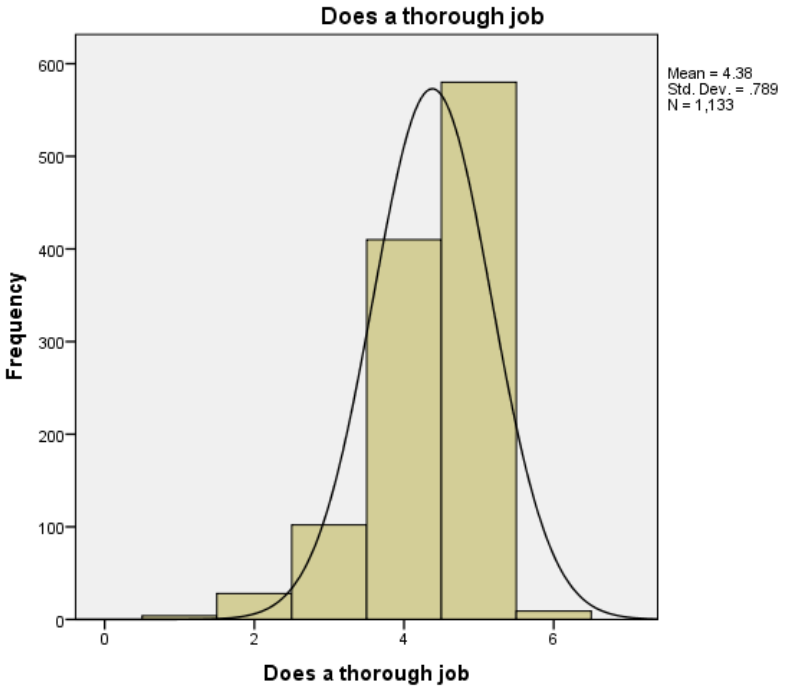

Lazy
Mean = 1.85
Std. Dev. = 1.046
N = 1,133
Frequency
600
500
400
300
200
100
0
0
2
4
6
Lazy

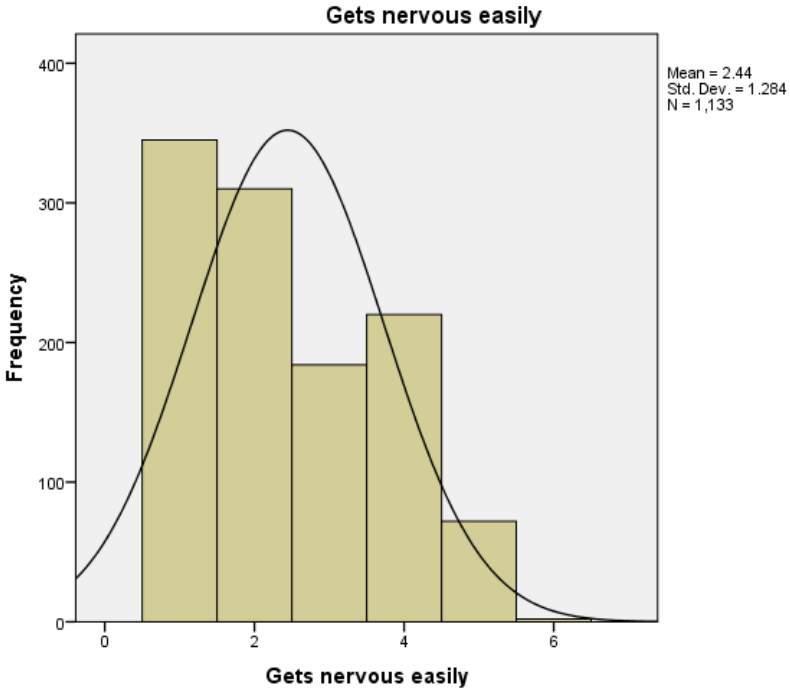

Relaxed and handles stress well
Mean = 3.52
Std. Dev. = .978
N = 1,133
Frequency
600
500
400
300
200
100
0
0
2
4
6
Relaxed and handles stress well

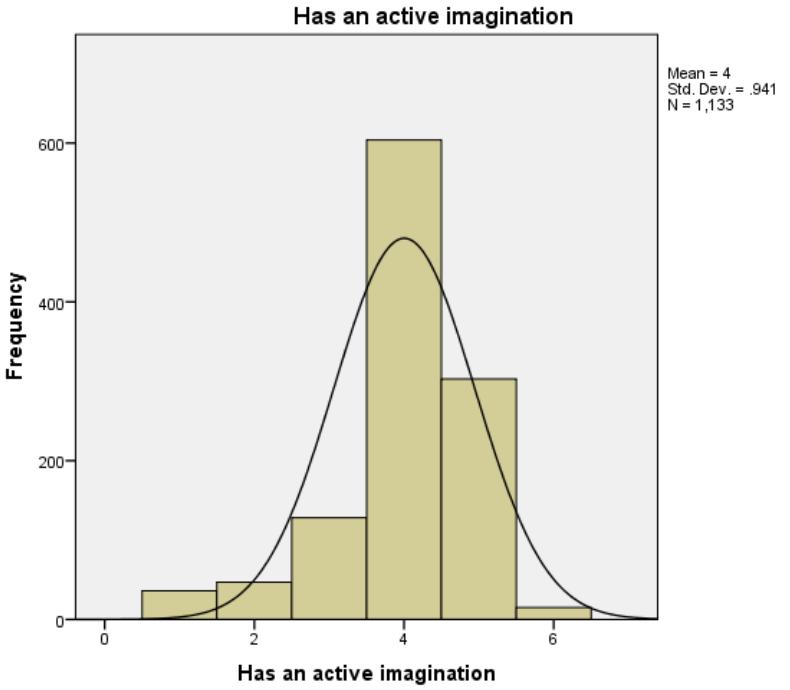

Few artistic interests or tendencies
Mean = 2.72
Std. Dev. = 1.187
N = 1,133
Frequency
600
500
400
300
200
100
0
0
2
4
6
Few artistic interests or tendencies


Outgoing and sociable
Mean = 3.88
Std. Dev. = .843
N = 1,133
Frequency
600
400
200
0
0
2
4
6
Outgoing and sociable


Tend to find fault with others
Mean = 3.18
Std. Dev. = 1.041
N = 1,133
Frequency
500
400
300
200
100
0
0
2
4
6
Tend to find fault with others


Does a thorough job
Mean = 4.38
Std. Dev. = .789
N = 1,133
Frequency
600
500
400
300
200
100
0
0
2
4
6
Does a thorough job


Gets nervous easily
Mean = 2.44
Std. Dev. = 1.284
N = 1,133
Frequency
400
300
200
100
0
0
2
4
6
Gets nervous easily


Has an active imagination
Mean = 4
Std. Dev. = .941
N = 1,133
Frequency
600
400
200
0
0
2
4
6
Has an active imagination

Appendix D: One-way ANOVA by Length of Service

Q4_1 Oneway ANOVA by Length of Service

Descriptives
When I am working, I think about nothing else

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 1-3 years	605	2.82	1.136
2 4-6 years	368	3.55	.911
3 7-9 years	64	3.09	.988
4 10+ years	91	3.09	.996
Total	1128	3.10	1.097

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
When I am working, I think about nothing else

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
18.713	3	1124	.000

ANOVA
When I am working, I think about nothing else

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	121.804	3	40.601	36.950	.000
Within Groups	1235.075	1124	1.099		
Total	1356.879	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means
When I am working, I think about nothing else

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	40.494	3	202.206	.000
Brown-Forsythe	40.736	3	370.645	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: When I am working, I think about nothing else
Tukey HSD

(I) How long have you worked with your current employer	(J) How long have you worked with your current employer	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
1 1-3 years	2 4-6 years	-.730*	.069	.000
	3 7-9 years	-.269	.138	.207
	4 10+ years	-.263	.118	.115
2 4-6 years	1 1-3 years	.730*	.069	.000
	3 7-9 years	.461*	.142	.007
	4 10+ years	.466*	.123	.001
3 7-9 years	1 1-3 years	.269	.138	.207
	2 4-6 years	-.461*	.142	.007
	4 10+ years	.006	.171	1.000
4 10+ years	1 1-3 years	.263	.118	.115
	2 4-6 years	-.466*	.123	.001
	3 7-9 years	-.006	.171	1.000

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

When I am working, I think about nothing else Tukey HSD[a,b]			
How long have you worked with your current employer	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
1 1-3 years	605	2.82	
4 10+ years	91	3.09	
3 7-9 years	64	3.09	
2 4-6 years	368		3.55
Sig.		.167	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 129.098.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q4_2 Oneway ANOVA by Length of Service

Descriptives
I get carried away by my work

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 1-3 years	605	3.43	.947
2 4-6 years	368	2.42	.835
3 7-9 years	64	3.81	1.037
4 10+ years	91	3.53	1.026
Total	1128	3.13	1.050

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
I get carried away by my work

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
9.452	3	1124	.000

ANOVA
I get carried away by my work

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	282.835	3	94.278	110.353	.000
Within Groups	960.268	1124	.854		
Total	1243.103	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means
I get carried away by my work

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	119.001	3	194.888	.000
Brown-Forsythe	98.647	3	297.702	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: I get carried away by my work
Tukey HSD

(I) How long have you worked with your current employer	(J) How long have you worked with your current employer	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
1 1-3 years	2 4-6 years	1.007*	.061	.000
	3 7-9 years	-.384*	.121	.009
	4 10+ years	-.099	.104	.774
2 4-6 years	1 1-3 years	-1.007*	.061	.000
	3 7-9 years	-1.391*	.125	.000
	4 10+ years	-1.106*	.108	.000
3 7-9 years	1 1-3 years	.384*	.121	.009
	2 4-6 years	1.391*	.125	.000
	4 10+ years	.285	.151	.233
4 10+ years	1 1-3 years	.099	.104	.774
	2 4-6 years	1.106*	.108	.000
	3 7-9 years	-.285	.151	.233

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

I get carried away by my work Tukey HSD[a,b]				
How long have you worked with your current employer	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
2 4-6 years	368	2.42		
1 1-3 years	605		3.43	
4 10+ years	91		3.53	3.53
3 7-9 years	64			3.81
Sig.		1.000	.824	.064

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 129.098.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q4_3 Oneway ANOVA by Length of Service

Descriptives

When I am working, I forget about everything else around me

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 1-3 years	605	2.93	1.069
2 4-6 years	368	2.26	.721
3 7-9 years	64	2.83	1.017
4 10+ years	91	2.97	.983
Total	1128	2.71	1.007

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

When I am working, I forget about everything else around me

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
51.002	3	1124	.000

ANOVA

When I am working, I forget about everything else around me

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	110.131	3	36.710	39.948	.000
Within Groups	1032.911	1124	.919		
Total	1143.042	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

When I am working, I forget about everything else around me

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	51.106	3	196.478	.000
Brown-Forsythe	40.154	3	305.309	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: When I am working, I forget about everything else around me

Tukey HSD

(I) How long have you worked with your current employer	(J) How long have you worked with your current employer	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
1 1-3 years	2 4-6 years	.668*	.063	.000
	3 7-9 years	.101	.126	.854
	4 10+ years	-.038	.108	.985
2 4-6 years	1 1-3 years	-.668*	.063	.000
	3 7-9 years	-.567*	.130	.000
	4 10+ years	-.706*	.112	.000
3 7-9 years	1 1-3 years	-.101	.126	.854
	2 4-6 years	.567*	.130	.000
	4 10+ years	-.139	.156	.811
4 10+ years	1 1-3 years	.038	.108	.985
	2 4-6 years	.706*	.112	.000
	3 7-9 years	.139	.156	.811

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

When I am working, I forget about everything else around me Tukey HSD[a,b]			
How long have you worked with your current employer	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
2 4-6 years	368	2.26	
3 7-9 years	64		2.83
1 1-3 years	605		2.93
4 10+ years	91		2.97
Sig.		1.000	.650

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 129.098.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q4_4 Oneway ANOVA by Length of Service

Descriptives
I am always totally immersed in my work

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 1-3 years	605	2.80	.947
2 4-6 years	368	3.61	.860
3 7-9 years	64	3.05	1.030
4 10+ years	91	2.91	.865
Total	1128	3.09	.990

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
I am always totally immersed in my work

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
3.437	3	1124	.016

ANOVA
I am always totally immersed in my work

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	156.130	3	52.043	61.747	.000
Within Groups	947.356	1124	.843		
Total	1103.486	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means
I am always totally immersed in my work

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	65.442	3	198.403	.000
Brown-Forsythe	59.994	3	306.190	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: I am always totally immersed in my work
Tukey HSD

(I) How long have you worked with your current employer	(J) How long have you worked with your current employer	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
1 1-3 years	2 4-6 years	-.817*	.061	.000
	3 7-9 years	-.250	.121	.163
	4 10+ years	-.115	.103	.679
2 4-6 years	1 1-3 years	.817*	.061	.000
	3 7-9 years	.567*	.124	.000
	4 10+ years	.702*	.107	.000
3 7-9 years	1 1-3 years	.250	.121	.163
	2 4-6 years	-.567*	.124	.000
	4 10+ years	.135	.150	.805
4 10+ years	1 1-3 years	.115	.103	.679
	2 4-6 years	-.702*	.107	.000
	3 7-9 years	-.135	.150	.805

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

I am always totally immersed in my work Tukey HSD[a,b]			
How long have you worked with your current employer	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
1 1-3 years	605	2.80	
4 10+ years	91	2.91	
3 7-9 years	64	3.05	
2 4-6 years	368		3.61
Sig.		.127	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 129.098.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q4_5 Oneway ANOVA by Length of Service

Descriptives
My work gives me a good feeling

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 1-3 years	605	3.78	.870
2 4-6 years	368	3.88	.577
3 7-9 years	64	3.89	1.010
4 10+ years	91	3.84	.946
Total	1128	3.82	.803

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
My work gives me a good feeling

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
35.653	3	1124	.000

ANOVA
My work gives me a good feeling

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.666	3	.889	1.379	.248
Within Groups	724.440	1124	.645		
Total	727.106	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means
My work gives me a good feeling

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	1.595	3	190.956	.192
Brown-Forsythe	1.130	3	247.062	.338

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: My work gives me a good feeling
Tukey HSD

(I) How long have you worked with your current employer	(J) How long have you worked with your current employer	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
1 1-3 years	2 4-6 years	-.100	.053	.237
	3 7-9 years	-.115	.106	.693
	4 10+ years	-.060	.090	.911
2 4-6 years	1 1-3 years	.100	.053	.237
	3 7-9 years	-.016	.109	.999
	4 10+ years	.040	.094	.974
3 7-9 years	1 1-3 years	.115	.106	.693
	2 4-6 years	.016	.109	.999
	4 10+ years	.055	.131	.974
4 10+ years	1 1-3 years	.060	.090	.911
	2 4-6 years	-.040	.094	.974
	3 7-9 years	-.055	.131	.974

Homogeneous Subsets

My work gives me a good feeling Tukey HSD[a,b]		
How long have you worked with your current employer	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05 1
1 1-3 years	605	3.78
4 10+ years	91	3.84
2 4-6 years	368	3.88
3 7-9 years	64	3.89
Sig.		.655

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 129.098.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q4_6 Oneway ANOVA by Length of Service

Descriptives
I do my work with a lot of enjoyment

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 1-3 years	605	3.64	.900
2 4-6 years	368	3.80	.626
3 7-9 years	64	3.75	.926
4 10+ years	91	3.67	.989
Total	1128	3.70	.833

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
I do my work with a lot of enjoyment

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
38.711	3	1124	.000

ANOVA
I do my work with a lot of enjoyment

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6.444	3	2.148	3.113	.025
Within Groups	775.471	1124	.690		
Total	781.915	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means
I do my work with a lot of enjoyment

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	3.853	3	193.072	.010
Brown-Forsythe	2.744	3	278.542	.043

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: I do my work with a lot of enjoyment
Tukey HSD

(I) How long have you worked with your current employer	(J) How long have you worked with your current employer	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
1 1-3 years	2 4-6 years	-.165*	.055	.015
	3 7-9 years	-.110	.109	.743
	4 10+ years	-.031	.093	.988
2 4-6 years	1 1-3 years	.165*	.055	.015
	3 7-9 years	.054	.112	.963
	4 10+ years	.134	.097	.513
3 7-9 years	1 1-3 years	.110	.109	.743
	2 4-6 years	-.054	.112	.963
	4 10+ years	.080	.136	.936
4 10+ years	1 1-3 years	.031	.093	.988
	2 4-6 years	-.134	.097	.513
	3 7-9 years	-.080	.136	.936

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

I do my work with a lot of enjoyment Tukey HSD[a,b]		
How long have you worked with your current employer	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05 1
1 1-3 years	605	3.64
4 10+ years	91	3.67
3 7-9 years	64	3.75
2 4-6 years	368	3.80
Sig.		.383

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 129.098.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q4_7 Oneway ANOVA by Length of Service

Descriptives
I feel happy during my work

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 1-3 years	605	3.64	.881
2 4-6 years	368	3.17	.588
3 7-9 years	64	3.70	.954
4 10+ years	91	3.66	.969
Total	1128	3.49	.839

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
I feel happy during my work

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
39.915	3	1124	.000

ANOVA
I feel happy during my work

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	56.121	3	18.707	28.498	.000
Within Groups	737.835	1124	.656		
Total	793.957	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means
I feel happy during my work

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	37.319	3	191.774	.000
Brown-Forsythe	24.249	3	263.399	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: I feel happy during my work
Tukey HSD

(I) How long have you worked with your current employer	(J) How long have you worked with your current employer	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
1 1-3 years	2 4-6 years	.467*	.054	.000
	3 7-9 years	-.062	.106	.938
	4 10+ years	-.018	.091	.997
2 4-6 years	1 1-3 years	-.467*	.054	.000
	3 7-9 years	-.529*	.110	.000
	4 10+ years	-.485*	.095	.000
3 7-9 years	1 1-3 years	.062	.106	.938
	2 4-6 years	.529*	.110	.000
	4 10+ years	.044	.132	.987
4 10+ years	1 1-3 years	.018	.091	.997
	2 4-6 years	.485*	.095	.000
	3 7-9 years	-.044	.132	.987

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

I feel happy during my work Tukey HSD[a,b]			
How long have you worked with your current employer	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
2 4-6 years	368	3.17	
1 1-3 years	605		3.64
4 10+ years	91		3.66
3 7-9 years	64		3.70
Sig.		1.000	.928

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 129.098.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q4_8 Oneway ANOVA by Length of Service

Descriptives
I feel cheerful when I am working

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 1-3 years	605	3.58	.863
2 4-6 years	368	3.82	.617
3 7-9 years	64	3.69	.924
4 10+ years	91	3.60	.965
Total	1128	3.67	.811

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
I feel cheerful when I am working

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
44.006	3	1124	.000

ANOVA
I feel cheerful when I am working

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	14.119	3	4.706	7.281	.000
Within Groups	726.548	1124	.646		
Total	740.667	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means
I feel cheerful when I am working

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	9.131	3	192.587	.000
Brown-Forsythe	6.243	3	272.205	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: I feel cheerful when I am working
Tukey HSD

(I) How long have you worked with your current employer	(J) How long have you worked with your current employer	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
1 1-3 years	2 4-6 years	-.245*	.053	.000
	3 7-9 years	-.109	.106	.731
	4 10+ years	-.026	.090	.992
2 4-6 years	1 1-3 years	.245*	.053	.000
	3 7-9 years	.136	.109	.596
	4 10+ years	.219	.094	.093
3 7-9 years	1 1-3 years	.109	.106	.731
	2 4-6 years	-.136	.109	.596
	4 10+ years	.083	.131	.921
4 10+ years	1 1-3 years	.026	.090	.992
	2 4-6 years	-.219	.094	.093
	3 7-9 years	-.083	.131	.921

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

I feel cheerful when I am working Tukey HSD[a,b]		
How long have you worked with your current employer	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05 1
1 1-3 years	605	3.58
4 10+ years	91	3.60
3 7-9 years	64	3.69
2 4-6 years	368	3.82
Sig.		.069

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 129.098.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q4_9 Oneway ANOVA by Length of Service

Descriptives
I would still do this work, even if I received less pay

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 1-3 years	605	2.98	1.249
2 4-6 years	368	2.19	.700
3 7-9 years	64	2.92	1.264
4 10+ years	91	3.01	1.278
Total	1128	2.72	1.163

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
I would still do this work, even if I received less pay

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
87.934	3	1124	.000

ANOVA
I would still do this work, even if I received less pay

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	154.062	3	51.354	42.124	.000
Within Groups	1370.289	1124	1.219		
Total	1524.351	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means
I would still do this work, even if I received less pay

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	60.396	3	190.946	.000
Brown-Forsythe	37.928	3	265.136	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: I would still do this work, even if I received less pay
Tukey HSD

(I) How long have you worked with your current employer	(J) How long have you worked with your current employer	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
1 1-3 years	2 4-6 years	.788*	.073	.000
	3 7-9 years	.053	.145	.983
	4 10+ years	-.036	.124	.992
2 4-6 years	1 1-3 years	-.788*	.073	.000
	3 7-9 years	-.734*	.150	.000
	4 10+ years	-.823*	.129	.000
3 7-9 years	1 1-3 years	-.053	.145	.983
	2 4-6 years	.734*	.150	.000
	4 10+ years	-.089	.180	.960
4 10+ years	1 1-3 years	.036	.124	.992
	2 4-6 years	.823*	.129	.000
	3 7-9 years	.089	.180	.960

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

I would still do this work, even if I received less pay Tukey HSD[a,b]			
How long have you worked with your current employer	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
2 4-6 years	368	2.19	
3 7-9 years	64		2.92
1 1-3 years	605		2.98
4 10+ years	91		3.01
Sig.		1.000	.916

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 129.098.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q4_10 Oneway ANOVA by Length of Service

Descriptives
I find that I also want to work in my free time

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 1-3 years	605	2.58	1.204
2 4-6 years	368	1.47	.942
3 7-9 years	64	3.14	1.233
4 10+ years	91	2.85	1.247
Total	1128	2.27	1.267

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
I find that I also want to work in my free time

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
25.509	3	1124	.000

ANOVA
I find that I also want to work in my free time

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	372.376	3	124.125	97.115	.000
Within Groups	1436.614	1124	1.278		
Total	1808.989	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means
I find that I also want to work in my free time

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	111.980	3	195.482	.000
Brown-Forsythe	90.126	3	299.456	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: I find that I also want to work in my free time
Tukey HSD

(I) How long have you worked with your current employer	(J) How long have you worked with your current employer	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
1 1-3 years	2 4-6 years	1.110*	.075	.000
	3 7-9 years	-.560*	.149	.001
	4 10+ years	-.266	.127	.156
2 4-6 years	1 1-3 years	-1.110*	.075	.000
	3 7-9 years	-1.671*	.153	.000
	4 10+ years	-1.376*	.132	.000
3 7-9 years	1 1-3 years	.560*	.149	.001
	2 4-6 years	1.671*	.153	.000
	4 10+ years	.294	.184	.381
4 10+ years	1 1-3 years	.266	.127	.156
	2 4-6 years	1.376*	.132	.000
	3 7-9 years	-.294	.184	.381

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

I find that I also want to work in my free time Tukey HSD[a,b]				
How long have you worked with your current employer	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
2 4-6 years	368	1.47		
1 1-3 years	605		2.58	
4 10+ years	91		2.85	2.85
3 7-9 years	64			3.14
Sig.		1.000	.233	.156

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 129.098.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q4_11 Oneway ANOVA by Length of Service

Descriptives
I work because I enjoy it

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 1-3 years	605	3.40	1.066
2 4-6 years	368	2.37	.858
3 7-9 years	64	3.69	.957
4 10+ years	91	3.40	1.063
Total	1128	3.08	1.112

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
I work because I enjoy it

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
15.816	3	1124	.000

ANOVA
I work because I enjoy it

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	277.044	3	92.348	93.002	.000
Within Groups	1116.091	1124	.993		
Total	1393.135	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means
I work because I enjoy it

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	107.702	3	199.101	.000
Brown-Forsythe	94.657	3	342.633	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: I work because I enjoy it
Tukey HSD

(I) How long have you worked with your current employer	(J) How long have you worked with your current employer	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
1 1-3 years	2 4-6 years	1.023*	.066	.000
	3 7-9 years	-.292	.131	.115
	4 10+ years	-.001	.112	1.000
2 4-6 years	1 1-3 years	-1.023*	.066	.000
	3 7-9 years	-1.315*	.135	.000
	4 10+ years	-1.023*	.117	.000
3 7-9 years	1 1-3 years	.292	.131	.115
	2 4-6 years	1.315*	.135	.000
	4 10+ years	.292	.163	.276
4 10+ years	1 1-3 years	.001	.112	1.000
	2 4-6 years	1.023*	.117	.000
	3 7-9 years	-.292	.163	.276

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

I work because I enjoy it			
Tukey HSD[a,b]			
How long have you worked with your current employer	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
2 4-6 years	368	2.37	
1 1-3 years	605		3.40
4 10+ years	91		3.40
3 7-9 years	64		3.69
Sig.		1.000	.086

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 129.098.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q4_12 Oneway ANOVA by Length of Service

Descriptives

When I am working on something, I am doing it for myself

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 1-3 years	605	3.32	1.040
2 4-6 years	368	2.37	.841
3 7-9 years	64	3.28	1.031
4 10+ years	91	2.81	1.074
Total	1128	2.97	1.073

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

When I am working on something, I am doing it for myself

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
17.852	3	1124	.000

ANOVA

When I am working on something, I am doing it for myself

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	214.788	3	71.596	74.242	.000
Within Groups	1083.932	1124	.964		
Total	1298.720	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

When I am working on something, I am doing it for myself

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	83.866	3	196.534	.000
Brown-Forsythe	70.626	3	313.769	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: When I am working on something, I am doing it for myself

Tukey HSD

(I) How long have you worked with your current employer	(J) How long have you worked with your current employer	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
1 1-3 years	2 4-6 years	.949*	.065	.000
	3 7-9 years	.038	.129	.991
	4 10+ years	.506*	.110	.000
2 4-6 years	1 1-3 years	-.949*	.065	.000
	3 7-9 years	-.912*	.133	.000
	4 10+ years	-.444*	.115	.001
3 7-9 years	1 1-3 years	-.038	.129	.991
	2 4-6 years	.912*	.133	.000
	4 10+ years	.468*	.160	.019
4 10+ years	1 1-3 years	-.506*	.110	.000
	2 4-6 years	.444*	.115	.001
	3 7-9 years	-.468*	.160	.019

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

When I am working on something, I am doing it for myself Tukey HSD[a,b]				
How long have you worked with your current employer	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
2 4-6 years	368	2.37		
4 10+ years	91		2.81	
3 7-9 years	64			3.28
1 1-3 years	605			3.32
Sig.		1.000	1.000	.990

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 129.098.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q4_13 Oneway ANOVA by Length of Service

Descriptives

I get my motivation from work itself, and not the reward for it

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 1-3 years	605	3.14	1.030
2 4-6 years	368	3.69	.757
3 7-9 years	64	3.55	1.007
4 10+ years	91	3.25	.973
Total	1128	3.35	.976

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

I get my motivation from work itself, and not the reward for it

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
17.063	3	1124	.000

ANOVA

I get my motivation from work itself, and not the reward for it

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	73.591	3	24.530	27.581	.000
Within Groups	999.685	1124	.889		
Total	1073.276	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

I get my motivation from work itself, and not the reward for it

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	31.991	3	196.924	.000
Brown-Forsythe	27.216	3	308.097	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: I get my motivation from work itself, and not the reward for it

Tukey HSD

(I) How long have you worked with your current employer	(J) How long have you worked with your current employer	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
1 1-3 years	2 4-6 years	-.554*	.062	.000
	3 7-9 years	-.408*	.124	.006
	4 10+ years	-.114	.106	.705
2 4-6 years	1 1-3 years	.554*	.062	.000
	3 7-9 years	.146	.128	.663
	4 10+ years	.440*	.110	.000
3 7-9 years	1 1-3 years	.408*	.124	.006
	2 4-6 years	-.146	.128	.663
	4 10+ years	.294	.154	.224
4 10+ years	1 1-3 years	.114	.106	.705
	2 4-6 years	-.440*	.110	.000
	3 7-9 years	-.294	.154	.224

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

I get my motivation from work itself, and not the reward for it

Tukey HSD[a,b]

How long have you worked with your current employer	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
1 1-3 years	605	3.14		
4 10+ years	91	3.25	3.25	
3 7-9 years	64		3.55	3.55
2 4-6 years	368			3.69
Sig.		.766	.060	.599

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 129.098.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Appendix E: One-way ANOVA by Age Groups

Q1_1 Oneway ANOVA by Age Groupss

Descriptives
Reserved

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 18-24	327	3.01	1.159
2 25-34	260	3.24	1.124
3 35-49	448	4.08	1.263
4 50+	93	2.88	1.160
Total	1128	3.48	1.293

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
Reserved

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.773	3	1124	.040

ANOVA
Reserved

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	283.345	3	94.448	66.267	.000
Within Groups	1602.009	1124	1.425		
Total	1885.354	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means
Reserved

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	63.385	3	367.033	.000
Brown-Forsythe	68.746	3	678.053	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: Reserved
Tukey HSD

(I) Your Age Groups	(J) Your Age Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1 18-24	2 25-34	-.232	.099	.089	-.49	.02
	3 35-49	-1.074*	.087	.000	-1.30	-.85
	4 50+	.124	.140	.812	-.24	.49
2 25-34	1 18-24	.232	.099	.089	-.02	.49
	3 35-49	-.842*	.093	.000	-1.08	-.60
	4 50+	.357	.144	.065	-.01	.73
3 35-49	1 18-24	1.074*	.087	.000	.85	1.30

	2 25-34	.842*	.093	.000	.60	1.08
	4 50+	1.199*	.136	.000	.85	1.55
4 50+	1 18-24	-.124	.140	.812	-.49	.24
	2 25-34	-.357	.144	.065	-.73	.01
	3 35-49	-1.199*	.136	.000	-1.55	-.85

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

Reserved				
Tukey HSD[a,b]				
		Subset for alpha = 0.05		
Your Age Groups	N	1	2	3
4 50+	93	2.88		
1 18-24	327	3.01	3.01	
2 25-34	260		3.24	
3 35-49	448			4.08
Sig.		.723	.207	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 201.115.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q1_2 Oneway ANOVA by Age Groupss

Descriptives
Trusting of others

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 18-24	327	3.59	.898
2 25-34	260	3.63	.960
3 35-49	448	3.91	.658
4 50+	93	3.84	.756
Total	1128	3.75	.828

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
Trusting of others

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
49.601	3	1124	.000

ANOVA
Trusting of others

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	24.249	3	8.083	12.151	.000
Within Groups	747.729	1124	.665		
Total	771.978	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means
Trusting of others

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	12.817	3	351.786	.000
Brown-Forsythe	11.728	3	701.722	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: Trusting of others
Tukey HSD

(I) Your Age Groups	(J) Your Age Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
1 18-24	2 25-34	-.037	.068	.949	-.21	.14
	3 35-49	-.318*	.059	.000	-.47	-.17
	4 50+	-.248*	.096	.047	-.50	.00
2 25-34	1 18-24	.037	.068	.949	-.14	.21
	3 35-49	-.282*	.064	.000	-.45	-.12

	4 50+	-.212	.099	.138	-.47	.04
3 35-49	1 18-24	.318*	.059	.000	.17	.47
	2 25-34	.282*	.064	.000	.12	.45
	4 50+	.070	.093	.876	-.17	.31
4 50+	1 18-24	.248*	.096	.047	.00	.50
	2 25-34	.212	.099	.138	-.04	.47
	3 35-49	-.070	.093	.876	-.31	.17

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

Trusting of others Tukey HSD[a,b]			
		Subset for alpha = 0.05	
Your Age Groups	N	1	2
1 18-24	327	3.59	
2 25-34	260	3.63	
4 50+	93		3.84
3 35-49	448		3.91
Sig.		.969	.827

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 201.115.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q1_3 Oneway ANOVA by Age Groupss

Descriptives
Lazy

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 18-24	327	2.28	1.091
2 25-34	260	2.17	1.057
3 35-49	448	1.38	.779
4 50+	93	1.70	.930
Total	1128	1.85	1.040

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
Lazy

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
16.339	3	1124	.000

ANOVA
Lazy

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	190.234	3	63.411	69.323	.000
Within Groups	1028.145	1124	.915		
Total	1218.379	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means
Lazy

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	73.427	3	350.426	.000
Brown-Forsythe	66.421	3	673.039	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: Lazy
Tukey HSD

(I) Your Age Groups	(J) Your Age Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1 18-24	2 25-34	.108	.079	.523	-.10	.31
	3 35-49	.904*	.070	.000	.73	1.08
	4 50+	.582*	.112	.000	.29	.87
2 25-34	1 18-24	-.108	.079	.523	-.31	.10
	3 35-49	.796*	.075	.000	.60	.99
	4 50+	.474*	.116	.000	.18	.77
3 35-49	1 18-24	-.904*	.070	.000	-1.08	-.73
	2 25-34	-.796*	.075	.000	-.99	-.60
	4 50+	-.322*	.109	.017	-.60	-.04

4 50+	1 18-24	-.582*	.112	.000	-.87	-.29
	2 25-34	-.474*	.116	.000	-.77	-.18
	3 35-49	.322*	.109	.017	.04	.60

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

Lazy				
Tukey HSD[a,b]				
		Subset for alpha = 0.05		
Your Age Groups	N	1	2	3
3 35-49	448	1.38		
4 50+	93		1.70	
2 25-34	260			2.17
1 18-24	327			2.28
Sig.		1.000	1.000	.668

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 201.115.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q1_4 Oneway ANOVA by Age Groupss

Descriptives
Relaxed and handles stress well

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 18-24	327	3.24	1.053
2 25-34	260	3.54	1.041
3 35-49	448	3.77	.765
4 50+	93	3.27	1.115
Total	1128	3.52	.978

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
Relaxed and handles stress well

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
35.981	3	1124	.000

ANOVA
Relaxed and handles stress well

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	59.384	3	19.795	21.853	.000
Within Groups	1018.147	1124	.906		
Total	1077.531	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means
Relaxed and handles stress well

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	22.903	3	340.580	.000
Brown-Forsythe	19.071	3	510.751	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: Relaxed and handles stress well
Tukey HSD

(I) Your Age Groups	(J) Your Age Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1 18-24	2 25-34	-.300*	.079	.001	-.50	-.10
	3 35-49	-.529*	.069	.000	-.71	-.35
	4 50+	-.030	.112	.993	-.32	.26
2 25-34	1 18-24	.300*	.079	.001	.10	.50
	3 35-49	-.229*	.074	.011	-.42	-.04
	4 50+	.270	.115	.089	-.03	.57
3 35-49	1 18-24	.529*	.069	.000	.35	.71
	2 25-34	.229*	.074	.011	.04	.42

	4 50+	.499*	.108	.000	.22	.78
4 50+	1 18-24	.030	.112	.993	-.26	.32
	2 25-34	-.270	.115	.089	-.57	.03
	3 35-49	-.499*	.108	.000	-.78	-.22

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

Relaxed and handles stress well Tukey HSD[a,b]			
		Subset for alpha = 0.05	
Your Age Groups	N	1	2
1 18-24	327	3.24	
4 50+	93	3.27	
2 25-34	260		3.54
3 35-49	448		3.77
Sig.		.989	.074

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 201.115.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q1_5 Oneway ANOVA by Age Groupss

Descriptives
Few artistic interests or tendencies

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 18-24	327	2.87	1.329
2 25-34	260	3.02	1.233
3 35-49	448	2.43	.960
4 50+	93	2.70	1.232
Total	1128	2.72	1.188

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
Few artistic interests or tendencies

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
34.828	3	1124	.000

ANOVA
Few artistic interests or tendencies

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	69.781	3	23.260	17.189	.000
Within Groups	1521.005	1124	1.353		
Total	1590.786	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means
Few artistic interests or tendencies

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	18.971	3	347.219	.000
Brown-Forsythe	15.962	3	599.808	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: Few artistic interests or tendencies
Tukey HSD

(I) Your Age Groups	(J) Your Age Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
1 18-24	2 25-34	-.148	.097	.416	-.40	.10
	3 35-49	.446*	.085	.000	.23	.66
	4 50+	.176	.137	.573	-.18	.53
2 25-34	1 18-24	.148	.097	.416	-.10	.40
	3 35-49	.595*	.091	.000	.36	.83
	4 50+	.324	.141	.097	-.04	.69
3 35-49	1 18-24	-.446*	.085	.000	-.66	-.23
	2 25-34	-.595*	.091	.000	-.83	-.36
	4 50+	-.270	.133	.174	-.61	.07

4 50+	1 18-24	-.176	.137	.573	-.53	.18
	2 25-34	-.324	.141	.097	-.69	.04
	3 35-49	.270	.133	.174	-.07	.61

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

Few artistic interests or tendencies Tukey HSD[a,b]				
		Subset for alpha = 0.05		
Your Age Groups	N	1	2	3
3 35-49	448	2.43		
4 50+	93	2.70	2.70	
1 18-24	327		2.87	2.87
2 25-34	260			3.02
Sig.		.092	.429	.576

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 201.115.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q1_6 Oneway ANOVA by Age Groupss

Descriptives
Outgoing and sociable

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 18-24	327	3.95	.915
2 25-34	260	3.78	.947
3 35-49	448	3.93	.660
4 50+	93	3.69	1.011
Total	1128	3.88	.844

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
Outgoing and sociable

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
32.446	3	1124	.000

ANOVA
Outgoing and sociable

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8.596	3	2.865	4.055	.007
Within Groups	794.247	1124	.707		
Total	802.843	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means
Outgoing and sociable

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	3.290	3	337.650	.021
Brown-Forsythe	3.459	3	489.184	.016

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: Outgoing and sociable
Tukey HSD

(I) Your Age Groups	(J) Your Age Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
1 18-24	2 25-34	.170	.070	.071	-.01	.35
	3 35-49	.025	.061	.978	-.13	.18
	4 50+	.263*	.099	.039	.01	.52
2 25-34	1 18-24	-.170	.070	.071	-.35	.01
	3 35-49	-.146	.066	.118	-.31	.02
	4 50+	.093	.102	.799	-.17	.35
3 35-49	1 18-24	-.025	.061	.978	-.18	.13
	2 25-34	.146	.066	.118	-.02	.31
	4 50+	.238	.096	.063	-.01	.48

4 50+	1 18-24	-.263*	.099	.039	-.52	-.01
	2 25-34	-.093	.102	.799	-.35	.17
	3 35-49	-.238	.096	.063	-.48	.01

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

Outgoing and sociable Tukey HSD[a,b]			
		Subset for alpha = 0.05	
Your Age Groups	N	1	2
4 50+	93	3.69	
2 25-34	260	3.78	3.78
3 35-49	448		3.93
1 18-24	327		3.95
Sig.		.687	.177

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 201.115.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q1_7 Oneway ANOVA by Age Groupss

Descriptives
Tend to find fault with others

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 18-24	327	3.05	1.036
2 25-34	260	2.99	1.080
3 35-49	448	3.45	.964
4 50+	93	2.82	.988
Total	1128	3.18	1.039

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
Tend to find fault with others

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.086	3	1124	.354

ANOVA
Tend to find fault with others

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	60.175	3	20.058	19.486	.000
Within Groups	1157.009	1124	1.029		
Total	1217.184	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means
Tend to find fault with others

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	20.300	3	360.795	.000
Brown-Forsythe	19.311	3	677.615	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: Tend to find fault with others
Tukey HSD

(I) Your Age Groups	(J) Your Age Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
1 18-24	2 25-34	.060	.084	.894	-.16	.28
	3 35-49	-.401*	.074	.000	-.59	-.21
	4 50+	.235	.119	.200	-.07	.54
2 25-34	1 18-24	-.060	.084	.894	-.28	.16
	3 35-49	-.461*	.079	.000	-.66	-.26
	4 50+	.175	.123	.482	-.14	.49
3 35-49	1 18-24	.401*	.074	.000	.21	.59
	2 25-34	.461*	.079	.000	.26	.66
	4 50+	.636*	.116	.000	.34	.93

4 50+	1 18-24	-.235	.119	.200	-.54	.07
	2 25-34	-.175	.123	.482	-.49	.14
	3 35-49	-.636*	.116	.000	-.93	-.34

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

Tend to find fault with others Tukey HSD[a,b]			
		Subset for alpha = 0.05	
Your Age Groups	N	1	2
4 50+	93	2.82	
2 25-34	260	2.99	
1 18-24	327	3.05	
3 35-49	448		3.45
Sig.		.094	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 201.115.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q1_8 Oneway ANOVA by Age Groupss

Descriptives
Does a thorough job

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 18-24	327	4.13	.768
2 25-34	260	4.12	.866
3 35-49	448	4.71	.622
4 50+	93	4.34	.801
Total	1128	4.38	.790

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
Does a thorough job

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
9.561	3	1124	.000

ANOVA
Does a thorough job

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	85.047	3	28.349	51.575	.000
Within Groups	617.824	1124	.550		
Total	702.871	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means
Does a thorough job

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	56.737	3	345.974	.000
Brown-Forsythe	46.827	3	578.278	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: Does a thorough job
Tukey HSD

(I) Your Age Groups	(J) Your Age Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
1 18-24	2 25-34	.011	.062	.998	-.15	.17
	3 35-49	-.573*	.054	.000	-.71	-.43
	4 50+	-.210	.087	.077	-.43	.01
2 25-34	1 18-24	-.011	.062	.998	-.17	.15
	3 35-49	-.585*	.058	.000	-.73	-.44
	4 50+	-.221	.090	.066	-.45	.01
3 35-49	1 18-24	.573*	.054	.000	.43	.71
	2 25-34	.585*	.058	.000	.44	.73
	4 50+	.364*	.084	.000	.15	.58

4 50+	1 18-24	.210	.087	.077	-.01	.43
	2 25-34	.221	.090	.066	-.01	.45
	3 35-49	-.364*	.084	.000	-.58	-.15

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

Does a thorough job Tukey HSD[a,b]				
		Subset for alpha = 0.05		
Your Age Groups	N	1	2	3
2 25-34	260	4.12		
1 18-24	327	4.13		
4 50+	93		4.34	
3 35-49	448			4.71
Sig.		.999	1.000	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 201.115.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q1_9 Oneway ANOVA by Age Groupss

Descriptives
Gets nervous easily

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 18-24	327	2.91	1.271
2 25-34	260	2.98	1.097
3 35-49	448	1.76	1.114
4 50+	93	2.56	1.058
Total	1128	2.44	1.283

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
Gets nervous easily

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
8.684	3	1124	.000

ANOVA
Gets nervous easily

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	360.249	3	120.083	90.237	.000
Within Groups	1495.771	1124	1.331		
Total	1856.020	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means
Gets nervous easily

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	92.385	3	367.687	.000
Brown-Forsythe	93.625	3	738.265	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: Gets nervous easily
Tukey HSD

(I) Your Age Groups	(J) Your Age Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
1 18-24	2 25-34	-.073	.096	.870	-.32	.17
	3 35-49	1.155*	.084	.000	.94	1.37
	4 50+	.352*	.136	.047	.00	.70
2 25-34	1 18-24	.073	.096	.870	-.17	.32
	3 35-49	1.228*	.090	.000	1.00	1.46
	4 50+	.425*	.139	.012	.07	.78
3 35-49	1 18-24	-1.155*	.084	.000	-1.37	-.94
	2 25-34	-1.228*	.090	.000	-1.46	-1.00
	4 50+	-.802*	.131	.000	-1.14	-.46

4 50+	1 18-24	-.352*	.136	.047	-.70	.00
	2 25-34	-.425*	.139	.012	-.78	-.07
	3 35-49	.802*	.131	.000	.46	1.14

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

Gets nervous easily Tukey HSD[a,b]				
		Subset for alpha = 0.05		
Your Age Groups	N	1	2	3
3 35-49	448	1.76		
4 50+	93		2.56	
1 18-24	327			2.91
2 25-34	260			2.98
Sig.		1.000	1.000	.920

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 201.115.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Q1_10 Oneway ANOVA by Age Groupss

Descriptives
Has an active imagination

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 18-24	327	3.91	1.270
2 25-34	260	4.13	.914
3 35-49	448	4.00	.659
4 50+	93	3.95	.785
Total	1128	4.00	.942

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
Has an active imagination

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
53.529	3	1124	.000

ANOVA
Has an active imagination

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7.927	3	2.642	2.991	.030
Within Groups	993.072	1124	.884		
Total	1000.999	1127			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means
Has an active imagination

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	2.558	3	349.168	.055
Brown-Forsythe	3.030	3	739.388	.029

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: Has an active imagination
Tukey HSD

(I) Your Age Groups	(J) Your Age Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
1 18-24	2 25-34	-.229*	.078	.018	-.43	-.03
	3 35-49	-.099	.068	.467	-.28	.08
	4 50+	-.041	.110	.982	-.33	.24
2 25-34	1 18-24	.229*	.078	.018	.03	.43
	3 35-49	.130	.073	.285	-.06	.32
	4 50+	.188	.114	.346	-.10	.48
3 35-49	1 18-24	.099	.068	.467	-.08	.28
	2 25-34	-.130	.073	.285	-.32	.06
	4 50+	.058	.107	.948	-.22	.33

4 50+	1 18-24	.041	.110	.982	-.24	.33
	2 25-34	-.188	.114	.346	-.48	.10
	3 35-49	-.058	.107	.948	-.33	.22

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

Has an active imagination Tukey HSD[a,b]		
		Subset for alpha = 0.05
Your Age Groups	N	1
1 18-24	327	3.91
4 50+	93	3.95
3 35-49	448	4.00
2 25-34	260	4.13
Sig.		.069

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 201.115.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Appendix F: Independent-samples t-test

Question 1

Group Statistics				
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Reserved	1 Male	381	3.22	1.163
	2 Female	747	3.61	1.337
Trusting of others	1 Male	381	3.68	.975
	2 Female	747	3.78	.740
Lazy	1 Male	381	2.20	1.134
	2 Female	747	1.67	.941
Relaxed and handles stress well	1 Male	381	3.66	1.097
	2 Female	747	3.45	.903
Few artistic interests or tendencies	1 Male	381	3.03	1.251
	2 Female	747	2.56	1.123
Outgoing and sociable	1 Male	381	3.73	1.006
	2 Female	747	3.95	.738
Tend to find fault with others	1 Male	381	3.07	1.081
	2 Female	747	3.23	1.014
Does a thorough job	1 Male	381	4.20	.833
	2 Female	747	4.47	.752
Gets nervous easily	1 Male	381	2.75	1.127
	2 Female	747	2.28	1.329
Has an active imagination	1 Male	381	4.17	.874
	2 Female	747	3.92	.965

Independent Samples Test							
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Reserved	Equal variances assumed	38.346	.000	-4.736	1126	.000	-.382
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.954	865.027	.000	-.382
Trusting of others	Equal variances assumed	59.977	.000	-1.985	1126	.047	-.103
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.818	608.984	.070	-.103
Lazy	Equal variances assumed	13.032	.000	8.253	1126	.000	.525
	Equal variances not assumed			7.774	653.031	.000	.525
Relaxed and handles stress well	Equal variances assumed	19.116	.000	3.542	1126	.000	.217
	Equal variances not assumed			3.328	648.903	.001	.217
Few artistic interests or tendencies	Equal variances assumed	4.155	.042	6.403	1126	.000	.471
	Equal variances not assumed			6.183	696.440	.000	.471
Outgoing and sociable	Equal variances assumed	88.115	.000	-4.162	1126	.000	-.220
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.775	594.696	.000	-.220
Tend to find fault with others	Equal variances assumed	.032	.858	-2.422	1126	.016	-.158
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.372	723.426	.018	-.158
Does a thorough job	Equal variances assumed	.863	.353	-5.370	1126	.000	-.264
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.196	700.242	.000	-.264
Gets nervous easily	Equal variances assumed	27.803	.000	5.932	1126	.000	.472
	Equal variances not assumed			6.255	883.435	.000	.472
Has an active imagination	Equal variances assumed	2.686	.102	4.217	1126	.000	.248
	Equal variances not assumed			4.354	834.715	.000	.248

Appendix G: Full Reporting of independent-samples and ANOVA

Question 1: The Big Five Factors and Flow

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores for each of the dependent variables asked within question one for males and females. The group statistics identify that the responses of 1128 people in the sample were valid. This section refers to the "Big Five" (5-Factors) and was used to identify what motivates people in the workplace as based on their personality type.

Q1_1: Reserved

An independent-samples t-test was conducted for Q1_1 to compare the scores of how reserved the participants feel in the work place. There was a difference for males (M = 3.22, SD = 1.63) and females (M = 3.61, SD = 1.337; t (865.027) = -4.954). The magnitude of the difference in means (mean difference = -.382, 95% CI: -1.8 to 1.87) was very small (eta squared = .003).

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on the Big 5 factors. With Q1_1 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 121.4, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .2. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 4.39, SD = 1.119), was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 3.02, SD = 1.126), Group 3 (M = 3.38, SD = 1.148), and Group 4 (M = 2.90, SD = 1.136). When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q1_1, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 66.3, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .2. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 4.08, SD = 1.263) was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 3.01, SD = 1.159), Group 2 (M = 3.24, SD = 1.124), and Group 4 (M = 2.88, SD = 1.16).

Q1_2: Trusting of others

An independent-samples t-test was conducted for Q1_2 to compare the scores of how trusting the participants are of other people in the work place. There was a difference for males (M = 3.68, SD = .975) and females (M = 3.78, SD = .740 t (608.904) = -4.954). The magnitude of the difference in means (mean difference = -.103, 95% CI: -1.8 to 1.87) was very small (eta squared = .02).

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on the Big 5 factors. With Q1_2 there was statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 10.6, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite small at .03. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 (M = 3.62, SD = .930), was significantly different from Group 2 (M = 3.92, SD = .571). They did not differ significantly from Group 3 or 4. When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q1_2, there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 12.151, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite small at .03. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 (M = 3.59, SD = .898) and Group 2 (M = 3.63, SD = .960) was different from Group 3 (M = 3.91, SD = .658) and Group 4 (M = 3.84, SD = .756).

Q1_3: Lazy

An independent-samples t-test was conducted for Q1_3 to compare the scores of how lazy the participants feel they are in the work place. There was a difference for males

(M = 2.20, SD = 1.134) and females (M = 1.67, SD = .941; t (653.031) = -7.774). The magnitude of the difference in means (mean difference = .525, 95% CI: -1.8 to 1.87) was moderate (eta squared = .05).

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on the Big 5 factors. With Q1_3 there was statistically significant differences at the p<.05 level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 57.5, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .13. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 1.34, SD = 1.074), was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 2.18, SD = .751), Group 3 (M = 1.86, SD = 1.096), and Group 4 (M = 1.70, SD = .925). When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q1_3, there were statistically significant differences at the p<.05 level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 69.3, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .16. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 1.38, SD = .779) was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 2.28, SD = 1.091), Group 2 (M = 2.17, SD = 1.057), and Group 4 (M = 1.70, SD = .930).

Q1_4: Relaxed and handles stress well
An independent-samples t-test was conducted for Q1_4 to compare the scores of how well the participants feel that they are relaxed and able to handle stress in the work place. There was a difference for males (M = 3.66, SD = 1.097) and females (M = 3.45, SD = .903; t (648.903) = 3.328). The magnitude of the difference in means (mean difference = .217, 95% CI: -1.8 to 1.87) was very small (eta squared = .01).

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on the Big 5 factors. With Q1_4 there was statistically significant differences at the p<.05 level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 21.6, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was small at .05. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 3.84, SD = .657), was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 3.37, SD = 1.071) and Group 4 (M = 3.24, SD = 1.026). It did not differ significantly from Group 4. When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q1_3, there were statistically significant differences at the p<.05 level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 21.85, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite small at .06. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 3.77, SD = .765) was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 3.24, SD = 1.053), Group 2 (M = 3.54, SD = 1.041), and Group 4 (M = 3.27, SD = 1.115).

Q1_5: Few artistic interests or tendencies
An independent-samples t-test was conducted for Q1_5 to compare the scores of how the participants identify themselves in relation to artistic tendencies. There was a difference for males (M = 3.03, SD = 1.251) and females (M = 2.56, SD = 1.123; t (696.440) = 6.183). The magnitude of the difference in means (mean difference = .471, 95% CI: -1.8 to 1.87) was very small (eta squared = .03).

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on the Big 5 factors. With Q1_5 there was statistically significant differences at the p<.05 level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 22.97, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was small at .06. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 2.31, SD = .847), was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 2.89, SD = 1.3), Group 3 (M = 2.88, SD

= 1.148) and Group 4 (M = 3.07, SD = 1.209). When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q1_5, there were statistically significant differences at the p<.05 level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 17.2, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was small at .04. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 2.43, SD = .960) was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 2.87, SD = 1.329) and Group 2 (M = 3.02, SD = 1.233). It did not differ significantly from Group 4.

Q1_6: Outgoing and sociable
An independent-samples t-test was conducted for Q1_6 to compare the scores of how outgoing and sociable the participants feel they are. There was a difference for males (M = 3.73, SD = 1.006) and females (M = 3.95, SD = .738; t (594.696) = -3.775). The magnitude of the difference in means (mean difference = -.220, 95% CI: -1.8 to 1.87) was very small (eta squared = .01).

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on the Big 5 factors. With Q1_6 there were no significant differences at the p<.05 level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 1.6, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was very small at .004. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the groups was not significantly different.

When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q1_6, there were statistically significant differences at the p<.05 level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 4.06, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was very small at .01. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 (M = 3.95, SD = .915) was significantly different from Group 4 (M = 3.69, SD = 1.011).

Q1_7: Tend to find fault with others
An independent-samples t-test was conducted for Q1_7 to compare the scores of how likely the participants are to find fault with others. There was no significant difference for males (M = 3.07, SD = 1.081) and females (M = 3.23, SD = 1.014; t (1126) = -2.422). The magnitude of the difference in means (mean difference = -.158, 95% CI: -1.8 to 1.87) was very small (eta squared = .005).

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on the Big 5 factors. With Q1_7 there was statistically significant differences at the p<.05 level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 43.6, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .10. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 3.65, SD = .831), was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 2.98, SD = 1.076), Group 3 (M = 2.97, SD = .942) and Group 4 (M = 2.75, SD = .950). When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q1_7, there were statistically significant differences at the p<.05 level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 19.5, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was small at .05. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 3.45, SD = .964) was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 3.05, SD = 1.036) and Group 2 (M = 2.99, SD = 1.080), and Group 4 (M = 2.82, SD = .988.

Q1_8: Does a thorough job
An independent-samples t-test was conducted for Q1_8 to compare the scores of how thorough a job the participants do in the workplace. There was a difference for males

(M = 4.20, SD = .833) and females (M = 4.47, SD = .752; t (700.242) = -5.196). The magnitude of the difference in means (mean difference = -.264, 95% CI: -1.8 to 1.87) was very small (eta squared = .02).

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on the Big 5 factors. With Q1_8 there was statistically significant differences at the p<.05 level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 43.7, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was quite small at .01. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 4.73, SD = .639), was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 4.17, SD = .794), Group 3 (M = 4.38, SD = .900) and Group 4 (M = 4.32, SD = .728). When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q1_8, there were statistically significant differences at the p<.05 level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 51.6, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .12. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 4.71, SD = .622), was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 4.13, SD = .768), Group 2 (M = 4.12, SD = .866) and Group 4 (M = 4.34, SD = .801).

Q1_9: Gets nervous easily
An independent-samples t-test was conducted for Q1_9 to compare the scores of how nervous the participants feel in the work place. There was a difference for males (M = 2.75, SD = 1.127) and females (M = 2.28, SD = 1.329; t (883.435) = 6.255). The magnitude of the difference in means (mean difference = .472, 95% CI: -1.8 to 1.87) was small (eta squared = .03).

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on the Big 5 factors. With Q1_9 there was statistically significant differences at the p<.05 level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 90, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .19. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 (M = 1.65, SD = 1.129), was significantly different from Group 1 (M = 2.89, SD = 1.198), Group 3 (M = 2.78, SD = 1.105) and Group 4 (M = 2.45, SD = .969). When ANOVA was used to compare the impact of age groups on Q1_9, there were statistically significant differences at the p<.05 level for the groups: F (3, 1124) = 90.2, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was significant at .19. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 (M = 1.76, SD = .1.114) was significantly different from Group 4 (M = 2.56, SD = .1.058). Both of these groups differ significantly on their own from Group1 (M = 2.91, SD = 1.271) and Group 2 (M = 2.98, SD = 1.097), which are statistically similar.

Q1_10: Has an active imagination
An independent-samples t-test was conducted for Q1_10 to compare the scores of how active an imagination the participants feel they have. There was no significant difference for males (M = 4.17, SD = .874) and females (M = 3.92, SD = .965; t (834.175) = 4.354). The magnitude of the difference in means (mean difference = .248, 95% CI: -1.8 to 1.87) was very small (eta squared = .01).

From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on the Big 5 factors. With Q1_10 there were no significant differences at the p<.05 level in scores for the four LOS groups: F (3, 1124) = 1.5, p = .000. The effect size using eta squared was very small at .004. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the groups was not significantly

different. From the one-way ANOVA tests carried out to explore the impact of length of service (LOS) period on the Big 5 factors. With Q1_10 there were no significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in scores for the four LOS groups: $F (3, 1124) = 3$, $p = .000$. The effect size using eta squared was very small at .008. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the groups was not significantly different.

Appendix H: Questionairre

Work Questionnaire

This survey is designed to let us know more about your feelings of work and your workplace. Please be assured that your responses are treated anonymously and are for the purpose of academic research only.

SECTION 1	You and work

Q1. Please indicate, by circling the appropriate number on each scale, your level of agreement with regards to how you see yourself as a person

	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly	No Opinion
1 Reserved	1	2	3	4	5	6
2 Trusting of others	1	2	3	4	5	6
3 Lazy	1	2	3	4	5	6
4 Relaxed and handles stress well	1	2	3	4	5	6
5 Few artistic interests or tendencies	1	2	3	4	5	6
6 Outgoing and sociable	1	2	3	4	5	6
7 Tend to find fault with others	1	2	3	4	5	6
8 Does a thorough job	1	2	3	4	5	6
9 Gets nervous easily	1	2	3	4	5	6
10 Has an active imagination	1	2	3	4	5	6

Q2. Please indicate, by circling the appropriate number on each scale, your level of agreement with regards to how you feel about the people you work with

	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly	No Opinion
1 If I was ill, my colleagues would help me	1	2	3	4	5	6
2 If I had a personal problem, I could rely on my colleagues for support	1	2	3	4	5	6
3 My colleagues often make demands of me	1	2	3	4	5	6
4 My colleagues are critical of me	1	2	3	4	5	6

Q3. Please indicate, by circling the appropriate number on each scale, the level of importance of the following statements, with regards to your decision to work

	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly	No Opinion
1 I look for good working conditions	1	2	3	4	5	0
2 I like the feeling of social involvement with others at work	1	2	3	4	5	0
3 I enjoy being in an environment which requires order and discipline	1	2	3	4	5	0
4 I need to feel appreciated for doing my job well	1	2	3	4	5	0
5 I feel that I have to be loyal to my colleagues	1	2	3	4	5	0
6 I work because I receive good wages	1	2	3	4	5	0
7 I look for the ability to increase my earnings	1	2	3	4	5	0
8 I am looking for career progression and development opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	0
9 Work is an important part of my lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5	0
10 Job security is important to me	1	2	3	4	5	0
11 Working hours are important to me	1	2	3	4	5	0

Q4. Please indicate, by circling the appropriate number on each scale, your level of agreement of the following statements which refer to your work experience over the past 2 weeks

	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly	No Opinion
1 When I am working, I think about nothing else	1	2	3	4	5	0
2 I get carried away by my work	1	2	3	4	5	0
3 When I am working, I forget about everything else around me	1	2	3	4	5	0
4 I am always totally immersed in my work	1	2	3	4	5	0
5 My work gives me a good feeling	1	2	3	4	5	0
6 I do my work with a lot of enjoyment	1	2	3	4	5	0
7 I feel happy during my work	1	2	3	4	5	0
8 I feel cheerful when I am working	1	2	3	4	5	0
9 I would still do this work, even if I received less pay	1	2	3	4	5	0
10 I find that I also want to work in my free time	1	2	3	4	5	0
11 I work because I enjoy it	1	2	3	4	5	0
12 When I am working on something, I am doing it for myself	1	2	3	4	5	0
13 I get my motivation from work itself, and not the reward for it	1	2	3	4	5	0

SECTION 2	How you feel about your place of work

Q5. Please indicate, by circling the appropriate number on each scale, the level of importance of the following statements, relating to how you fell about your organisation

	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly	No Opinion
1 If the values of my organisation were different, I would not be as attached to it	1	2	3	4	5	0
2 Since working here, my personal values have become more similar to the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	0
3 The reason I prefer this company is because of its values and what it stands for	1	2	3	4	5	0
4 My attachment to the company is based on our similarity in values	1	2	3	4	5	0
5 What this organisation stands for is important to me	1	2	3	4	5	0
6 I am proud to tell people that I am part of this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	0
7 I talk up this organisation to friends as a great place to work	1	2	3	4	5	0
8 I feel a sense of ownership for my organisation rather than just being an employee	1	2	3	4	5	0
9 Unless I am rewarded in some way, I see no reason to expend extra effort at work	1	2	3	4	5	0
10 How hard I work is directly linked to how well I am rewarded	1	2	3	4	5	0
11 My private views of my organisation are different to those I display publicly at work	1	2	3	4	5	0
12 In order for me to get rewarded at work, it is necessary to show the "right" attitude	1	2	3	4	5	0

Q6. Please indicate, by circling the appropriate number on each scale, the frequency that refers to your behaviour at work

	Never			Occasionally			Daily
1 I have spent time on personal matters instead of work for my employer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2 I have taken property from work without permission	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3 I daydream and waste time instead of doing my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4 I have made fun of a colleague at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5 I have falsified receipts or bills to gain financially at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6 I have said something hurtful to a colleague at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7 I have taken a longer break than I was due to at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8 I have repeated a gossip that I have heard about my workplace, area, or company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9 I have made an ethnic, racist, or sexist joke at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10 I have come to work late without permission	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11 I litter my work environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12 I have cursed at someone at work (colleague, customer, student)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13 Called in sick when I wasn't	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14 Discredited my place of work to someone outside it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15 Lost my temper at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16 Ignored instructions from my manager or superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17 Intentionally worked slower than I can	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18 Left early without permission	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

19 Used drugs or alcohol at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20 Dragged out work in order to gain overtime or additional pay	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21 Left work tasks or duties for someone else to complete	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22 Repeated a rumour or gossip I have heard about a colleague	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 3 Your Spirituality

Q7. Please indicate, by circling the appropriate number on each scale, your level of agreement with regards to how you feel about your faith and religion

	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly	No Opinion
1 I believe in faith	1	2	3	4	5	0
2 I believe in a religion	1	2	3	4	5	0
3 I believe in god	1	2	3	4	5	0
4 I think about how my life is part of a larger spiritual force	1	2	3	4	5	0
5 I work together with God as a partner	1	2	3	4	5	0
6 I look to God for strength, support, guidance	1	2	3	4	5	0
7 I feel that God punishes me for my sins or lack of spirituality	1	2	3	4	5	0
8 I wonder whether God has abandoned me	1	2	3	4	5	0
9 I try to make sense of the situation and decide what to do without relying on God	1	2	3	4	5	0

SECTION 4	Your Comments

Q8. Please use the space below to answer the questions as fully as possible

Question	Answer space
1 In what way are you given freedom at work to express yourself for who you really are?	
2 Do you feel that you are given fair and flexible breaks at work?	
3 In what way are you offered flexibility of your working hours?	
4 In what way does your organisation encourage you to work harder?	
5 How does your organisation reward you and show their appreciation for you doing your job to the best of your abilities?	

SECTION 5	General Questions

Please tick the appropriate box that refers to you

1. Gender
   - ☐ Male (1)
   - ☐ Female (2)

2. Your age group
   - ☐ 18-24 (1)
   - ☐ 25-34 (2)
   - ☐ 35-49 (3)
   - ☐ 50+ (4)

3. What is your current position
   - ☐ Staff (1)
   - ☐ Supervisor (2)
   - ☐ Management (3)

4. Is this the highest ranking position you have ever been employed in
   - ☐ Yes (1)
   - ☐ No (2)

5. How long have you worked with your current employer
   - ☐ 1-3 years (1)
   - ☐ 4-6 years (2)
   - ☐ 7-9 years (3)
   - ☐ 10+ years (4)

6. Is this your first and only place of work for your current employer
   - ☐ Yes (1)
   - ☐ No (2)

7. Do you work mainly on your own, or as part of a team
   - ☐ Work on own (1)
   - ☐ Part of a team (2)

8. How large is your direct work group/team
   - ☐ 2-5 people (1)
   - ☐ 6-9 people (2)
   - ☐ 10+ people (3)

9. What is your highest education achievement
   - ☐ High school (1)
   - ☐ College (HNC/D) (2)
   - ☐ University under-grad (3)
   - ☐ University post-grad (4)

Thank you for taking the time and effort to complete this survey
Your responses are treated anonymously, and are very much appreciated

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